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ABSTRACT

A collection of papers on second language instruction includes: "The Immersion Approach: Principle and Practice" (Helena Anderson Curtain); "Authentic Camera-Produced Materials for Random-Access Video Delivery" (Francis Lide, Barbara Lide); "Listening: What's Really Going on in the Classroom?" (Donna Reseigh Long); "Listening and Learning: Protocols and Processes" (Charles J. James); "Listening Ability: Check It or Wreck It" (Alan Garfinkel); "Achieving Proficiency Goals through Competency Guidelines" (Walter H. Bartz, Lorraine Strasheim); "Classroom Activities: Oral Proficiency in Action" (Sidney Hahn, Joyce Michaelis); "Let Your Students Do the Talking: Pattern Practices in a Partner System" (Virginia Senor); "Building Reading Vocabulary through Inference: A Better Classification of Context Clues" (George Hughes, Clark Chinn); "Teaching Multi-Level Classes: A Lesson from the Past" (Leon C. Book); "Advanced Language Classes: Revitalizing the Curriculum" (Marie Trayer); and "Strengthening Community Foreign Language Programs through Communication Bridges" (Marcia H. Rosenbusch, Walter Chatfield). (MSE)

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CENTRAL STATES

Report of Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

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Second-Language Acquisition: Preparing for Tomorrow

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Second Language Acquisition: Preparing for Tomorrow

Selected Papers from the 1986
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Preface

After an eight-year absence, the Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages returns to the multiethnic city of Milwaukee, Wisconsin. With its unique language immersion schools, its strong foreign language and ESL programs, and its racial and ethnic diversity, Milwaukee provides an excellent setting for the 1986 conference, "Beyond Language Acquisition—Educating for the 21st Century."

As language teachers, we continually strive to supply our students with the most "natural" way to learn a second language. By providing them with comprehensible input, we can see dramatic improvements in our students' abilities to use the second language for communication, which, after all, is our ultimate goal.

The students we are teaching today will be the communicators in the world of the twenty-first century. We language professionals are obliged to help these young people communicate as best they can in a world that will surely be different from that in which we live today.

With the goal of communication, the program of the 1986 conference focuses on the acquisition of language skills. Through the keynote speeches of Tracy Terrell and Lorraine Strasheim and the 80 preconference workshops and general sessions, the program seeks to provide participants with a variety of information on language acquisition which will, in turn, help us educate our students for the next century.

Dave McAlpine
1986 Program Chairperson

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Introduction

Barbara Snyder
Normandy High School, Parma, Ohio

As we move closer to the twenty-first century, our profession has good reason for optimism. Communication has become a primary focus of both technology and the humanities, and in both fields new ideas promise an exciting future. As we learn to use new computer, video, and telephone technologies, for example, we are also learning new behaviors and strategies to improve communication among people and peoples.

Although breakthroughs in communication occur at a pace that sometimes alarms us, most of the resulting techniques and technologies are so interesting and rewarding that we welcome them, accept them, and try them. Then, with joy and satisfaction, we master them and, knowing that our lives are richer, we look to the future and wonder once again with apprehension and fascination about the next breakthrough.

Foreign language educators have the advantage of both technological and theoretical advances. Our students know that they will live in a world in which communication is essential, and many are learning languages with greater dedication and enthusiasm. To help students prepare for the future, teachers can use new technologies and can apply new theories that encourage and improve the acquisition of language. The authors in this volume reflect this optimism and enthusiasm about language acquisition as they help teachers prepare for the future.

The two themes of both the 1986 conference and of this volume are acquisition and the future. Appropriately, the first article considers the theme of language acquisition by children. Reminding us that optimum acquisition occurs when young children have extensive contact with language in communicative situations, Helena Anderson Curtain describes immersion programs, research, and theory. The second article reflects the other theme, the future, as Francis and Barbara Lide provide examples to show how random-access video will make it easier for teachers to use visual materials in teaching language and culture.

Listening is vital to language acquisition. A series of three articles deals with this important concept. Donna Long provides data on listening in the classroom and follows with ideas to increase the listening content of the lesson. Charles James suggests a process using native language protocols that can help us evaluate listening skills and that can help students improve their listening proficiency. Alan Garfinkel gives rationale for including evaluation of listening abilities as part of students' grades.

Language acquisition results in proficiency. Attaining and measuring various levels of proficiency are ongoing concerns of the profession, ones that we have already begun to implement, yet ones that will continue to concern us. The next four articles deal with the proficiency concept. Three give suggestions to improve oral proficiency, and one deals with reading proficiency. First, planning is necessary if proficiency is to be achieved. Walter Bartz and Lorraine Strasheim describe competency guidelines developed by an Indiana Task Force, and they give examples showing how these specific competency guidelines set in cultural contexts can help us meet proficiency goals. Next, Sidney Hahn and Joyce Michaelis provide rationale for improving oral proficiency and then list numerous classroom activities to help attain this goal. The activities, developed as part of a Nebraska project, are based on commonly used textbooks and on functional objectives. Finally, because some basic practice with language is necessary to achieve oral proficiency, Virginia Senor describes a classroom pairing system that uses visuals to improve pattern practice activities.

Students also need to acquire reading proficiency. George Hughes and Clark Chinn offer a system to help students increase their vocabulary and to read unsimplified prose with greater comprehension.

The final three articles in this volume remind us of important ideas from the past that must not be lost as we prepare for the future. Multi-level classes, for example, have been a past concern, and they may be an even greater concern in the future. Leon Book shows how individualized instruction, a lesson from the past, may be adapted to improve language learning in the future for multi-level advanced classes. Another important lesson that we must not forget is the study of the values of our own culture and those of the target culture. Marie Trayer suggests a values-based curriculum for advanced classes and provides a course outline and specific examples.

An ever-important theme is that of better professional relationships.

If we cannot get along with one another in our own profession, how can we expect our students to accept another culture? Marcia Rosenbusch and Walter Chatfield conclude this volume by reminding us of the most important message of all: as we prepare for the future, we need to learn how to learn from each other. They describe an Iowa project that, by bringing together the various language teachers in a community, resulted in a better language program.

As we help one another learn more about language acquisition and other theories and technologies, we will be better prepared for a bright future for foreign language education.

Thanks Offered for Professional Dedication

In the spirit of professional cooperation, many people have given their time and talents to make this volume possible.

The following readers evaluated the many articles submitted: Robert Ballinger, Worthington High School, Worthington, Ohio; Evelyn Brod, Raymond Walters College, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio; Mary Carr, Lawrence North High School, Indianapolis, Indiana; Diana Cook, Angola High School, Angola, Indiana; Richard Danner, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio; Harold Davis, James Rhodes High School, Cleveland, Ohio; John Durden, Akron Public Schools, Akron, Ohio; Diane German, North Montgomery High School, Crawfordsville, Indiana; Jan Hofts, John Marshall High School, Indianapolis, Indiana; James Kealey, Ohio Dominican College, Columbus, Ohio; Donna Long, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio; Carol McKay, Muskingum College, New Concord, Ohio; Henry Lee Miner, University of Evansville, Evansville, Indiana; Roger Neff, Otterbein College, Westerville, Ohio; Robert Novotny, Edgewood High School, Ashtabula, Ohio; Carla Price Larsh, Brownsburg High School, Brownsburg, Indiana; Alice Pullin, Warren Central High School, Indianapolis, Indiana; Virginia Senor, Shaw High School, East Cleveland, Ohio; Donna Sutton, Sylvania Northview High School, Sylvania, Ohio; Maureen Weissenrieder, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio; and Elizabeth Williamson, Roosevelt High School, Gary, Indiana.

Evelyn Brod, Raymond Walters College, University of Cincinnati, and Gisèle Loriot-Raymer, University of Cincinnati, served as proofreaders of the articles submitted for publication.

In addition to the usual editing duties, coeditor Walter Bartz coordinated the work of the readers, and Jane Black Goepper provided in-depth editing and coordinated the work of the proofreaders.

On behalf of those who read this volume, I thank all the authors, readers and proofreaders, and editors, for their service to the Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages.

1
The Immersion Approach: Principle and Practice

Helena Anderson Curtain
Milwaukee Public Schools

The immersion approach to second language instruction at the elementary level has received much attention recently because it holds the promise of achieving a goal that elementary second language programs have been unable to accomplish in the past. That goal is functional proficiency in the second language. Students who complete the entire sequence of an elementary immersion program are able to communicate in the second language on topics appropriate to their age level. In addition to the goal of achieving functional proficiency in the second language, immersion programs have as a further goal the mastery of subject content material taught through the second language.

The purpose of this article is to present an overview of the immersion approach and to attempt to provide answers to the most frequently asked questions. The article contains definitions, descriptions, goals, history, enrollments, program options, and the advantages of early immersion over other immersion models. The article also briefly attempts to establish theoretical foundations and discuss possible links between immersion and other kinds of approaches.

What Is Immersion?

Language immersion is an approach to second language instruction in which the usual curricular activities are conducted in a second language. The second language, therefore, is the *medium* of instruction rather than the *object* of instruction. An immersion program can begin at any level—at the beginning of elementary school where it is called early immersion; toward the end of elementary school where it is called middle or delayed immersion; or in middle school, junior high, or high school where it is called late immersion.

Immersion programs vary in the amount of time spent in the second language each day. In total immersion programs the second language is used throughout the school day during the first two or three years of the program. In partial immersion programs, instruction takes place in the second language for at least half of the school day. Of all models and approaches to second language acquisition, the immersion approach, by the nature of its design, is easily able to integrate language study into the pattern of the normal school curriculum.

The common goals of immersion programs may be stated as follows (see, for example, Lambert and Tucker, 12; Campbell, 3; Swain, 19):

1. Students will achieve functional proficiency in the second language.
2. Students will maintain and continue to develop skills in their first language.
3. Students will master subject content at their appropriate grade level.
4. Students will acquire an understanding and appreciation of another language and culture which will in no way detract from their appreciation of their home culture.

Establishment of Public School Immersion Programs

The idea of putting language learners in the environment where they must use the language is certainly not a new one. In 1965 a group of English-speaking parents encouraged the establishment of the first public school immersion program, a kindergarten class in St. Lambert, Quebec. These parents were concerned that traditional French programs did not meet their children's needs for greater comprehension and fluency at a time when bilingualism had become an important issue in Canada. Immersion programs in Canada have grown to the extent that French programs are now offered in every province with approximately 160,000 students, according to statistics from Canadian Parents for French (21). Immersion programs have spread to the United States where in 1983 there were almost 5000 students enrolled (Rhodes and Schreibstein, 15), and in 1985 there were almost 7000 students enrolled in French, German, and Spanish programs (9).

Early Total Immersion

Students in early total immersion programs begin their study of the second language in kindergarten or first grade. These programs take advantage of children's language acquisition in a natural setting where the new language is the only means of communication. From the time the children arrive at school in the morning, they hear only the second language spoken by the teacher. All classroom conversation and instructions are in the second language. In this way the children acquire the second language in play and work situations that are related to meaningful communication. Emphasis is on the learning activity (for example, reading, mathematics, social studies, art) and not on the language.

Students enrolled in the program are monolingual English-speaking children. Teachers are native or near-native speakers of the second language. Because all students in immersion classes are monolingual, they begin on an equal footing with regard to second language skills. The children tend to show little anxiety or frustration about learning in another language because what they learn is within their experience and because every effort is made to put language into a meaningful context. They learn, for example, to speak and write about things they understand: in kindergarten, a lesson on objects that sink and float; in first grade, a trip to the fire station; in second grade, a lesson on magnets; in sixth grade, a lesson on Wisconsin's history.

In the immersion classroom, students initially communicate with each other in English. They also use English to communicate with the teacher who responds in the second language. This reduces anxiety and allows a silent period in which students can begin to build their comprehension. Within a year and a half to two years in the program, students move rather automatically into speech production. Reading skills are introduced through the second language. This approach is markedly different from that of most bilingual education programs in which reading is introduced in the first language. After two or three years in an early total immersion program, students are introduced to formal English language arts for thirty minutes to an hour each day. As students progress through the middle grades, the amount of English is gradually increased until in grades five or six, there is a balance between the second language and English. Slight variations often occur in program design depending upon

the needs, desires, and resources of the school district; but the basic concept, goals, and methodology of the immersion approach remain the same.

Early Partial Immersion Programs

The difference between early partial immersion programs and early total immersion programs is that in partial immersion only 50 percent of the instruction is in the second language. Students learn to read in both languages at the same time, beginning in the first grade. In partial immersion programs, the amount of second language instruction usually remains constant throughout the elementary school program. Some school administrators have opted for partial rather than total immersion because of cost, scheduling, or the fear often held by parents that students in total immersion programs would lack native language skills.

Middle or Delayed Immersion Programs

In middle or delayed immersion programs, the use of the second language as a major medium of instruction is delayed until grades four or five. Students often have a traditional second language course in the primary grades before they enter the delayed immersion program (Genesee, 8).

Late Immersion Programs

Late immersion programs are those that begin at the end of elementary school, or in middle school or high school. Many students entering late immersion programs have had previous foreign language instruction in FLES programs. In many cases students are taught a class in language arts in the second language, along with at least two subject content areas. Genesee (8) has defined late immersion programs as programs in which at least half the school day is spent in the second language with at least two subject content areas taught through the second language.

Immersion Program Results

Teachers and administrators in both Canadian and American school districts have been concerned that students will not achieve well in the

basic subject areas and will fall behind students in traditional English-only classes. Beginning with the original St. Lambert study (Lambert and Tucker, 12), research coming from immersion programs in Canada consistently documents the positive effects of the immersion approach:

1. Immersion students perform as well as their English-educated peers on tests of English skills (Swain, 17; 18; 19).
2. Students acquire remarkable proficiency in the second language compared to students in traditional second language programs (Swain, 17).
3. They show equal or superior performance to their monolingual English-speaking peers in subject content mastery (Swain, 19).
4. Immersion education is effective for children with below average IQ (Swain, 19) or with language learning disabilities (Bruck, 2).
5. Immersion students "develop more friendly and open attitudes toward French-Canadians" (Lambert, 11).

Effects on English Skills

Research results (Swain, 17; 18; 19) show that students in early immersion programs perform as well as their English-educated peers or often outperform them on tests of achievement in English. Immersion students are initially behind English-only students in their English skills but catch up within a year after the English component is introduced into the curriculum. Students develop literacy skills in the second language, which are transferred to the first language. Although first-grade students were initially behind English-only students for a short period of time, they were found to be more sensitive to the needs of the listener in their oral communication skills (Genesee, Lambert, and Tucker, 7).

Effects on Second Language Skills

Students acquire remarkable proficiency in the second language compared to students in traditional second language programs. Swain has described the effects of immersion programs on the second language skills of students as follows:

> The results reveal consistently superior performance in French skills as compared to students who have had a traditional program of French instruction.

> The results also show that the immersion students score as well on French proficiency instruments as thirty percent of the native-speaking students. After six or seven years in an immersion program, student performance in the areas of listening and reading approaches native-like levels; whereas in the areas of speaking and writing, many differences between immersion and Francophone students still remain. [17, p. 22]

Although children in immersion programs develop a functional proficiency far beyond what can be accomplished in a traditional foreign language program and become functionally bilingual and literate in two languages, their second language skills are not native-like with respect to all characteristics of vocabulary and grammar. Swain summarized the distinction: "This does not mean that the children were unable to say what they wanted to, but they used numerous strategies or techniques to say what they did not have the grammatical means to say" (18, p. 492).

Another look at second language skills of children in early immersion programs comes from the Spanish program in Culver City, California:

> While the children's speech is typically accented, the children produce a very high percentage of linguistic forms required in any given utterance in adherence to the linguistic rules of Spanish. In fact, the students' degree of grammaticality, that is, the correct selection of lexical and grammatical forms and the correct pronunciation in the production and comprehension of Spanish utterances, far exceeds the degree of ungrammaticality. [Campbell, 3, pp. 132–33]

One reason for the difference between speech of immersion students and their native-speaking peers may be the lack of interaction among immersion students and native speakers. The only native-speaker model that students have available to them is their classroom teacher. Otherwise, the only spoken second language they hear is that of their non-native-speaking classmates. Further development of their second language skills is dependent on interaction with native speakers of the language, either in or out of school. If immersion students were in a situation where they needed to modify their language, these children should be able to move quickly and efficiently toward more native-like speech. Additionally, the number of contact hours a native speaker has with the language by the end of the sixth grade exceeds the number of contact hours possible in an immersion program.

Effects on the Learning of Subject Content Material

Immersion students do well in academic achievement. They show equal or superior performance to their monolingual English-speaking peers in measures of subject content mastery in mathematics, science, and social studies (Swain, 19). Tests of cognitive abilities and subject content achievement are administered in English, even though the students are taught through the second language.

Achievement in Immersion Programs as Related to IQ and Learning Disabilities

A common impression is that immersion education is only for children of above average intelligence. If this were true, above average students would have higher scores in tests of second language proficiency than below average students, given the usual relationship between IQ and academic achievement. On tests of literacy-related skills (Swain, 17; Genesee, 6), above average students performed better than below average students. It was found, however, that having an above or below average IQ made no difference in their performance of interpersonal communication skills. Below average students understood as much spoken French as above average students, and they were rated as highly as above average students on all measures of oral production.

These studies suggest that IQ does not play a more significant role in the success of a student in immersion than it does in the success of a student in the regular monolingual program. According to Swain:

> Below average students were able to benefit from French immersion as much as the average and above average students in terms of acquiring interpersonal communication skills in the second language. Furthermore, from the English language testing that was carried out with the same samples of students, there was no evidence that the below average students in French immersion were farther behind in English skills development than were the below average students in the regular English program. [19, p. 102]

Basically the same conclusion has been reached concerning children with language learning disabilities. It has been found that children with language learning disabilities who have followed the traditional French-as-a-Second-Language program acquire little knowledge of French be-

cause the teaching method seems to exploit areas where they have difficulty: "memory work, repetition of language out of context; explicit teaching of abstract rules" (Bruck, 2, p. 885). If learning disabled children are to acquire a second language in school, therefore, immersion appears to be a much better context in which they can achieve this goal.

Differences between Partial and Total Immersion Programs

When looking at differences between partial and total immersion programs, results are somewhat as expected: the more contact hours, the better the second language proficiency of the students. In studies of French language skills (Swain, 17), it has been found that partial immersion students do not perform as well as total immersion students of the same grade level, but they tend to perform as well as total immersion students in lower grade levels who have had similar amounts of contact time with French. In learning content materials, early partial immersion students tend to perform equivalently or not as well as their English-educated peer groups. One explanation for this difference may lie in Cummins's hypothesis (5) that states that learners must attain a threshold level in their second language in order to be able to benefit from instruction in that language. The threshold level, however, has not been defined at this time. This is certainly an area in which further research is needed.

Results from Late Immersion Programs

Outcomes from late immersion programs with respect to subject content mastery, maintenance of first language skills, and development of second language skills are difficult to summarize because of the variety of formats available. Swain (17) states that if there is sufficient core French instruction prior to the program and if sufficient additional courses are taken in French following the program, high levels of French proficiency can be attained, with no loss to the mastery of content material or native language proficiency.

Benefits of Early Immersion

One of the most obvious benefits of early immersion education is the long sequence of time available for students to achieve proficiency in the

second language. This proficiency prepares students to survive communicatively in a native-speaking environment with the expectation that the students' speech will become increasingly native-like. Early immersion makes bilingualism possible for the largest number of students because functional proficiency in the second language at that level is not necessarily tied to literacy skills.

Because students in early immersion programs develop proficiency in the second language very quickly, it is possible to acquire the fluency needed to deal with subject content areas without difficulty. This is not the case in partial or late immersion programs in which the level of vocabulary required in a subject content course may be beyond the language ability of students. Much less time is required to develop the equivalent results on tests of achievement in English in total immersion programs than in partial immersion programs.

A final point in favor of early immersion programs is the apparent enthusiasm and aptitude that young children demonstrate for language learning. Swain characterizes this as "feelings of ease, comfort and naturalness in using the second language" (17, p. 26). In contrast, older students may have had experiences or formed negative attitudes that may jeopardize second language learning (Genesee, 8). Because early immersion programs are an integral part of the elementary school day, they do not compete with other activities for prominence.

Immersion Programs in the United States

As research information from immersion programs was disseminated, immersion programs spread rapidly in Canada. Immersion programs have also been established in the United States where a completely different set of realities regarding second language learning exists. Immersion programs in the United States have been established for a variety of reasons, most of which center on a search for alternative approaches to successful second language teaching for young children.

The first immersion program in the United States was established in Spanish in Culver City, California, in the fall of 1971 with the help of the University of California-Los Angeles. Subsequently, programs were added in Montgomery County, Maryland; Cincinnati, Ohio; San Diego, California; Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Orem, Utah; Holliston, Massachusetts; Baton

Rouge, Louisiana; and Rochester, New York. Most programs are French and Spanish, except for Milwaukee and Cincinnati where German programs also exist. Likewise, all these programs are total immersion, except for Cincinnati where there is a partial immersion program. (For more information, see Rhodes and Schreibstein, 15.) Immersion programs in the United States were established either at neighborhood schools with neighborhood school enrollment or as magnet schools to aid in integration in large urban school districts.

Two examples of immersion experience in the United States are Culver City, California, and Milwaukee, Wisconsin. Results from the Culver City program are similar to those of the St. Lambert study. English-speaking students acquire competence in understanding, speaking, reading, and writing in Spanish, while maintaining English language proficiency. These students also perform at the same level as their English-speaking age group in content subjects such as mathematics and science (Cohen, 4).

Milwaukee Immersion Program

The Milwaukee Public Schools began with a total immersion program in German in 1977 as part of the integration plan for the city. French was added in 1978 and Spanish in 1980.

The goals of the Milwaukee program are modeled on goals of the St. Lambert experiment. They state that students who complete the immersion program from kindergarten through grade six will meet the following goals:

1. Communicate (understand, speak, read, and write) in the second language with ability approximating that of a pupil who is native to that language.
2. Perform in English language arts as well as or better than their monolingual peers.
3. Acquire a greater understanding, knowledge, and appreciation of other cultures.
4. Achieve such proficiency in the second language and in English that they are able to pursue their studies with ease in both languages.
5. Achieve skills and knowledge in all subject areas equal to or greater than their monolingual peers.

Research results are similar to those from Culver City and Canada. Milwaukee's standardized testing program utilizes the Metropolitan Achievement Test and the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. Results over the last eight years are based on a student population that comes from diverse geographical and socioeconomic backgrounds and that has a wide range of intellectual ability. Approximately 40 percent of the students are black; about 10 percent are Spanish surnamed, Native American, and Asian students; and the remaining 50 percent are white. There are no criteria for entrance into the immersion program except parent interest. Students are randomly selected from extensive waiting lists.

Test results show that Milwaukee's immersion students consistently score well above citywide and national averages in standardized tests in English language arts and mathematics. In the 1981 Grade 3 results from the German program, for example, 100 percent of the pupils scored in the average to above average range on the Metropolitan Achievement Test for Reading (in English) compared to 70 percent for Milwaukee Schools as a whole and 77 percent for norm groups throughout the United States. Similar results were found in mathematics test scores.

The following generalizations apply to the test results of immersion students in Milwaukee:

1. Students in the immersion program are achieving at or above ability level.
2. Students at every grade level are performing much better than citywide or national samples on English tests.
3. Student test scores are increasing grade by grade.

Theoretical Foundations and Links to Other Approaches

It is interesting to consider immersion methodology in relationship to some of the theoretical foundations to which it is linked. The immersion approach is based on the premise that second language learning is similar to first language learning and that people learn a second language in context where they experience it in its natural form and where they are socially motivated to communicate (Lambert, 11). It is based on the belief that much language learning can occur during the nonlanguage class in much the same way that first language acquisition occurs when children are communicating with others about nonlanguage issues (Genesee, 8).

Of the current theoretical positions held by researchers dealing with second language acquisition, those formulated by Krashen (10) seem most closely related to the immersion approach. Immersion succeeds because it allows comprehensible input with a focus on meaning (acquisition) instead of a focus on form (learning). Because there is no formal grammar instruction in the early stages of an immersion program, students acquire rather than learn a language. The immersion approach provides an acquisition-rich environment for the second language learner. The learner is able to deduce meaning from experiences, concrete examples, and abundant visual realia found in the immersion classroom (Met, 14). To use Krashen's terminology, in the immersion classroom "the affective filter is down" because anxiety and frustration are easily minimized. Affective variables in an immersion program are high motivation, keen parent interest, and the enriching experience of being in the immersion classroom.

The Natural Approach (Terrell, 20) and the immersion approach have the following factors in common:

1. Students are allowed to respond in their native language until they are sufficiently comfortable to respond in the target language.
2. The instructor does not correct developmental errors during acquisition activities. In the immersion approach the focus is usually on errors of fact and not errors of form. Errors of form are usually treated indirectly.
3. Instructional activities take into account various factors such as current target language proficiency, age, and the immediate linguistic needs of class members; and all classroom activities support acquisition rather than learning.

In the Natural Approach, the study of a foreign language includes both acquisition and learning activities; however, formal language learning activities are not an important feature in the immersion approach and are delayed until the students reach an appropriate developmental level for such activities. This approach parallels that of the monolingual English language arts curriculum.

Asher's Total Physical Response (TPR) approach (1) demands that language be taught in a meaningful context. This approach enables students to see the cause-and-effect relationship between language and human

behavior, just as immersion students see it on a daily basis in their regular classroom communication. In the immersion approach as in TPR, comprehension precedes production.

The immersion approach and the Suggestopedia method originated by Lozanov (13) share the idea that an intensive exposure to a supersaturated learning environment is a key factor in language acquisition. Lozanov suggests that the most efficient language learning takes place only where the learner is immersed in an environment to which he or she is actively receptive.

It would be possible to extend this list of relationships between immersion and other approaches. The immersion approach, especially total immersion, has the advantage of an environment that can encompass an entire school day with all the myriad opportunities for real, context-embedded, meaningful communication that can occur in such an environment.

Conclusion

While there is great variety in the types of immersion programs now functioning and while there are still areas that need further investigation, it is apparent that the immersion concept in second language education is a sound one. Extensive studies have shown that children benefit from such an approach to second language acquisition and do not suffer a loss of native language skill development. They not only become functionally proficient in a second language but also develop average or above average skills in their native language.

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2
Authentic Camera-Produced Materials for Random-Access Video Delivery

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In second language teaching, the use of materials produced by still cameras, motion-picture cameras, and video cameras is a vast field of endeavor. It encompasses still photographs in textbooks; still slides; films in the target language; student-produced video skits; prerecorded videocassettes purchased abroad; videocassettes recorded from broadcasts abroad; films and video materials provided by foreign embassies, consulates, and information agencies; video letters exchanged between schools here and in the target culture; and video programming brought in by satellite dish.

Within this larger area, the concern here is with camera-produced materials that meet the following criteria:

1. Authenticity. To be authentic, materials must, with few exceptions, be shot in the target culture, and the communicative situations and short dialogues must not be contrived but re-created as they actually occurred or, in the case of set utterances, typically occur.
2. Suitability for use not as ancillary materials, but as actual teaching materials for developing skills in reading and visual literacy on the one hand and oral communicative competence on the other.
3. Suitability for use at the elementary and early intermediate levels, especially the former.
4. Delivery to the classroom or language laboratory through video.
5. Suitability for selective use by random access.

All current video technologies have a cuing capability, but to the authors' knowledge there have been no collections of materials created for foreign language instruction and specifically designed for random access. In 1983, Otto (3) reported on a project at the University of Iowa for creating an archive of 3000 still images suitable for use in the entire spectrum of courses offered in departments of German. The archive was being put together with an eye toward delivery by random access through the laser videodisc; the results, however, have not since been made available, apparently because of the setback the technology suffered when RCA ceased production of its stylus videodisc in April 1984, a setback from which the separate laser disc technology is only now beginning to recover (*Wall Street Journal*, 7; 8; 9).

So far, the tendency in developing video materials has been toward continuity rather than random access. The best-known pioneering materials were the *Guten Tag* series in German, first introduced in 1969, and the *Zarabanda* series in Spanish, first available on video in 1973 (*The Video Sourcebook*, 6). Both were developed before rapid visual search of the tape became available to the nontechnician user, and both, originally created for instruction via television, were designed to be used in their entirety in the packages made available for academic settings. Departments leased or purchased the video component, adopted the accompanying textbook, and organized all or part of the elementary sequence around the series. Both programs had fictitious story lines, with *Zarabanda* taking the more elaborate form of the soap opera. Both were slow paced, and in the *Guten Tag* series, at least, a great deal of footage was devoted to long shots with no dialogue.

More recently, CBS Fox has produced John Rassias's fast-paced, pizzazzy *Contact French* (4), a ten-lesson videocassette series designed for use in its entirety.

The *Montevidisco* program in Spanish at Brigham Young University (Gale, 1) takes learners on a simulated visit to a town in Mexico. Conceived at the outset for interactive use with computers in the language laboratory, the materials produced for the videodisc were authored according to an intricate script that was designed to provide for extensive branching (over 1100 possible options). Targeted for the post-intermediate level, the program has found some use among intermediate students as well.

An alternative to using video materials specifically created for use in

foreign language instruction is to secure and adapt materials created for general use within the target culture. Thus, members of the Department of Foreign Languages at the Air Force Academy conducted an experiment in 1983 in which a twelve-minute, made-for-TV German film, *Klavier im Haus*, was copied onto a laser videodisc and developed with the aid of a computer program for interactive instruction toward the end of the first-year sequence. The emphasis was on the effectiveness of CAI in connection with filmed materials rather than on the potential of videodisc technology. The authors found that a major limiting factor was the availability of suitable material on videodisc (Schrupp, Bush, and Mueller, 5).

Despite these exciting and important initiatives, there remains a significant unmet need for a large fund of short, disconnected video materials designed specifically for rapid selective access and usable either in the classroom or the language laboratory, starting at the earliest stages of instruction.

Theory and Examples

As a theoretical model for creating these materials, we propose *the language learner in public places in the target culture, communicating, functioning, and satisfying an intense intellectual curiosity*. The major strength of camera-produced materials, after all, is to bring to the learner the actual sights, sounds, and communicative situations encountered where the language is spoken. The language learner in the target culture is an ideal construct. In reality, however, few adolescents and young adults have the intense intellectual curiosity about all aspects of the target culture that we would wish for them. Nevertheless, it is precisely this curiosity that should permeate all our camera-produced materials. Additionally, real youthful learners abroad have the option of avoiding communicative situations that put their language proficiency to the test. They also have the option of ignoring language on signs that request constraints on behavior (e.g., No parking), thereby leading to irritation with Americans on the part of natives. The teacher must, therefore, assume the role of the ideal learner in the target culture in identifying and recording video materials for later delivery to students at home.

The following are some examples of language learners communicating, functioning, and satisfying their intellectual curiosity in the target culture.

You are in Lucerne walking along the swiftly flowing outlet to the Lake of Lucerne. On the railing separating the walk from the river, you see a long red-and-white pole with a large metal hook on the end. Near the pole is the sign: *Oeffentliches Rettungsgerat. Missbrauch wird bestraft.* (Public lifesaving equipment. Misuse subject to criminal penalties.) This information is not trivial; it can lead to cultural reflections about the well-behaved Swiss and the behavioral norms one must adhere to in a well-ordered society: if livesaving gear is to be left about, unlocked and ready for instantaneous use when needed, any tampering with it must be subject to criminal sanctions.

You are on the upper deck of an excursion steamer going up the scenic portion of the Rhine. You see a young man raise a gate and go around a corner. Interested in exploring ships, you would like to follow him. But then you see a sign reading: *Fahrgästen ist das Betreten der Kommandobrücke untersagt.* (Entry to the bridge prohibited for passengers.)

You are driving a rental car in Paris, desperately looking for a parking place. You finally find an empty space but see a sign posted on the adjacent wall: *Sortie de voiture. Defénse de stationner.* (Driveway. No parking.) You must heed this sign at the risk of being towed.

In the course of your travels through Germany, you see a billboard that is part of a very clever ad campaign for Kodak film. It is a closeup shot of two ladybugs mating on a twig. The copy reads: *Kodak Filme sehen das Glück besser als der Mensch.* (Kodak films see happiness—or good luck—better than a person.) This billboard conveys two interesting cultural messages: the ladybug is widely considered an omen of good luck in Germany (it's also called a *Glückskäfer*, or good-luck beetle), and no one seems to find the mating ladybugs offensive.

You are in Paris and hungry for an inexpensive snack. You see a place that sells foods over the counter for consumption on the street. You read the large bill of fare posted there, go up to the counter, and say "*Un croque-monsieur, S'il vous plaît.* ("Grilled ham and cheese, please.")

While window-shopping in Trier, you are struck by a fascinating display in a confectionery shop window. Some of the boxes of candy displayed bear the label *Asbach Uralt*, which you recognize as the name of a German brandy. You look closer and see some individual pieces of candy displayed, together with a small card reading: *Weinbrand-Bohnen, 100 Gramm, DM 4.25.* "Brandy beans? Aha, this must be chocolate with some sort of brandy fillings," you say. You rehearse the pronunciation of *Weinbrand-Bohnen*, walk into the shop, and say, "Hundert Gramm Weinbrand-Bohnen, bitte." ("One hundred grams of brandy beans, please.")

While strolling under the Alster Arcades in Hamburg, you see some people seated at café tables, but you see no waitress. Before taking a seat at one of the

tables, you ask one of the customers: "Entschuldigung, ist hier Selbstbedienung?" ("Is there self-service here?") The customer replies: "Nein, Sie werden bedient." ("No, you will be waited on.") You nod your thanks politely. End of exchange.

Though the utterances in these examples lack surface structure, they are neither trivial nor irrelevant to language learning; they illustrate precisely the way to communicate effectively, even with minimal exposure to the language. Structure is less important than visual literacy and the ability to articulate one's message orally in a manner recognizable to the native speaker.

Delivery Systems

What innovative foreign language teachers have not had the desire for some magic by which they could deliver to their students these and similar impressions and situations—in something close to their original impact and authenticity—at appropriate points in the course of instruction? Two competing video technologies are now available to deliver these impressions: the popular videocassette recorder and the laser videodisc. The videocassette is a read-and-write medium, while the videodisc, at present, is a read-only medium that requires professional equipment for recording and cannot be used to record television broadcasts or to generate one's own programming. The VCR's read-and-write capability has secured for it a commanding lead in the consumer electronics market; laser videodiscs are firmly established in training and sales applications in the private economy, and analysts predict a bright future for them in the emerging field of electronic retailing. As a vehicle for delivering camera-produced materials, the VCR suffers from certain inherent disadvantages in comparison to the laser disc. The latter has 54,000 frames per side, each frame capable of storing a still photograph, and the random-access cuing is precise and instantaneous, allowing any frame on a side to be accessed within three seconds (*Wall Street Journal*, 8). The VCR, by contrast, is a linear-access system that cues less precisely and more slowly. The laser disc produces superior freeze frames; whereas achieving good freeze frames with a VCR is technically more complex, so that a truly satisfactory freeze-frame capability tends to be limited to more expensive machines.

The examples of the language learner in the target culture given above can be classified into five categories: (1) signs and ads with obvious or familiar contexts (the ladybug poster); (2) signs for which the context must be inferred (the sign on the Rhine steamer); (3) signs and inscriptions that require a context to be understood easily (lifesaving equipment); (4) materials that must be read in order to initiate an oral communicative exchange (bills of fare, the sign in the confectionery shop); and (5) purely conversational exchanges and dialogues (the café in Hamburg). For situations in which materials must be read, the most readily available method of recording the material has been still photography, and photographs in textbooks and slides on the projector screen have been the modes of delivery.

Supplemental Visual Materials

The profession owes a debt of gratitude to the authors of supplementary textbooks featuring photographed signs and ad copy—books that have opened our eyes to the potential of signs and ads as teaching materials and that have led to a laudable, if unevenly followed, trend toward the inclusion of such materials in conventional elementary and intermediate textbooks. The passage from camera lens to textbook, however, inevitably involves a considerable loss of impact and effectiveness. Printing costs usually necessitate using black-and-white photos and reducing the image in size. Much of the small print becomes illegible, and the source photos must frequently be cropped to the point where any inclusion of both text and context in the same shot becomes almost impossible. The use of establishment shots to create a nonverbal context for the text to be read is not effective in books because learners can bypass them at will. Finally, when anything finds its way into a textbook, there is an inevitable loss of authenticity. One encounters printed texts in the real world and one encounters them in textbooks, and both students and teachers have long been conditioned to make that unconscious distinction. In getting photographs for reading and visual literacy into textbooks, foreign language professionals have done their work well; the limitations have been those of the textbook as a vehicle for delivery.

Color slides do not suffer from these textbook-related limitations. With slides, both the photography and the organization of the shots for

presentation are completely within both the control and the capabilities of the individual teacher. The sequence of establishment shot and closeup is also in the teacher's control. Projected in color onto a large screen, slides possess great impact. Since the projected image is large and realistic, it can also function effectively as the learner's conversation partner in simulating communicative situations. One projects the bill of fare, for example, and asks the student to order the *croque-monsieur*.

But slides also have disadvantages. The room must be darkened, and setting up can be time-consuming and embarrassing to the teacher if it does not go smoothly. Slides also tend to deteriorate markedly when subjected to the heat of the projector lamp for the rather prolonged periods common in instructional uses. At eighty slides per carousel, storage is not as compact as is possible in other technologies, and cuing is cumbersome. Indexing and physically sorting and re-sorting slides according to theme, situation, vocabulary, or grammatical structure are extremely time-consuming.

With materials for reading and visual literacy, video has at least three possible roles. First, as Otto (3) has noted, it is a vehicle for compact storage and efficient delivery of still photos. Second, video is a means of enhancing stills. Third, it can be used to record the material directly, thereby supplying both the nonverbal context for the text to be read and the perspective of the learner in the target culture.

Laser Videodisc Technology

The most promising technology for storage and delivery of stills is the laser videodisc. With one photograph stored on a single frame and 54,000 instantly addressable frames per side, a single disc has a storage potential that far exceeds the current capacity of the entire foreign language profession to generate photographs with texts on them. The system is like a giant slide carousel in which the slides are cued electronically rather than sorted and rearranged physically.

Here are some examples of what could be achieved pedagogically through such a technology. The teacher shows these billboards advertising Kodak film:

> Visual of owl. Text: *Kodak Filme sehen das Nachtleben besser als der Mensch.* (Kodak films see night life better than a person does.) The photo of the owl helps make the word *Nachtleben* (night life) clear.

Photo of a small boy blowing up a large yellow balloon caught in the very moment of exploding. Text: ***Kodak Filme sehen den Knall besser als der Mensch.*** (Kodak films see the bang better than a person does.) The pictorial of the exploding balloon helps students guess the meaning of ***Knall*** (bang).

Billboard with the mating ladybugs and the copy: ***Kodak Filme sehen das Glück besser als der Mensch.*** (Kodak films see happiness better than a person does.) Students are rewarded with a laugh when they solve the communicative problem.

So far, the three posters shown are linguistically identical except for the substituted direct object. While learners enjoy the advantages of repetition in learning a straightforward use of the comparison of adjectives, the changing visuals keep the repetition from becoming boring.

A billboard with a front view of the head of an eagle. Text: ***Kodak hat Filme, die besser sehen als das menschliche Auge.*** (Kodak has films that see better than the human eye.)

In this example, the text is the same as that of the preceding billboard, but with one grammatical and two vocabulary differences. The word *Auge* has been added, and the noun ***Mensch*** has become the adjective *menschliche*. But this text contains a relative clause, which makes it suitable for inclusion in another series devoted to that grammatical feature:

Billboard: *Polaroid. Die Sprache, die jeder sofort versteht.* (Polaroid. The language that everyone understands immediately.)

Sign in subway admonishing passengers to be helpful: *Hilfe, die nur ein Lächeln kostet.* (Help that only costs a smile.)

Sticker on car: *Wir sind die Leute, vor denen uns unsere Eltern immer gewarnt haben.* (We are the people our parents have always warned us about.)

These examples could be continued indefinitely. Photographic materials delivered in such a fashion enjoy the strengths of using short pieces of discourse for reading while they minimize the weaknesses. When extended discourses are used as reading materials, there is a near-random mix of idioms and grammatical structures, and the vocabulary is dictated by the subject matter and, therefore, is difficult to control. These disadvan-

tages are compensated by the fact that the context, once established, tends to work for the entire discourse; the longer the discourse, the greater the number of context clues for understanding any given segment. With short discourses, difficulties of vocabulary, structure, and reference are controlled by the simple process of selection, and a given structure or lexical item can be presented with a density impossible to achieve in a single longer discourse. With each new short discourse, however, the context clues must be established anew. This disadvantage is overcome with photographed ads and signs, for the context is established almost instantaneously by the nonverbal elements of each new image.

The same shot can be classified according to a variety of categories. The organizing principle demonstrated above was structural, but it could just as easily be any other relevant principle. As Otto (3) has pointed out, however, such a large number of separate images so compactly stored would have to be indexed using a computerized database program.

Video also has the capability of enhancing the way still photographs are delivered. Instead of consigning a photo to one frame on the videodisc, the image can be held for a given length of time, and a voiceover can be added to supply the ideal subvocalization. There are undoubtedly other possibilities as well.

Capturing Context on Videodiscs

When a context must be inferred for a sign or inscription, or when context and text cannot be captured in the same shot, the material should be recorded with a video camera for video playback. Video also has the capability of supplying the perspective of the viewer in the real situations in which texts are read. Thus most traffic signs would gain in both realism and context if they were videotaped from the perspective of the driver or front-seat passenger. One starts to park in the empty space at the curb and then zooms in on the sign: *Sortie de voiture. Défense de stationner.* The sign is read on voiceover. Freeze frame.

The most a still photograph can convey while still being close enough for the lettering to be legible is a periphery. The sign on the Rhine steamer, for example, shows only a white surface with a row of rivets. The inference that the sign is on a ship, though possible, would probably not be made by many viewers. One would need a second or two of video

footage of the ship tied up at the landing bridge and then a short zoom-in to the ship's bridge. Fadeout. On the upper deck the camera shows a crew member entering the bridge and then zooms in for a closeup of the sign. Voiceover. Freeze frame.

As for the photograph of the lifesaving equipment in Lucerne, no still camera is capable of effectively showing a swiftly flowing river. Here the video camera would assume the perspective of the traveler walking the street, pan around toward the river and the famous covered-bridge landmark, scan the lifesaving pole, and finally zoom in on the sign. Hold for voiceover. Freeze frame. Since both Lucerne and the Rhine are popular tourist destinations, it is important that the pan-around identify the location. The student who has already been to either place will experience the excitement of recognizing the locales; the one who visits them later will reread the sign and remember his or her foreign language instruction favorably.

Many posters with a great deal of print—such as posters showing a large number of wanted terrorists or a poster giving all the details of a folk festival with beer tent—are impossible to catch successfully using still photography. Here the video camera assumes the perspective of the passerby reading the poster, zooms in on it, and scans the material at a slow reading speed.

Conversational Exchanges on Videodisc

Recording and playback on video is also the ideal method for presenting oral communicative exchanges based on prior readings. To record the shopper at the confectionery shop, for example, the camera approaches the window, pans around, and zooms in on the *Weinbrand-Bohnen*. The pronunciation is rehearsed on voiceover, and the camera enters the shop and approaches the counter, where an employee takes the order. Freeze frame. Student response.

A video or motion-picture camera is also the only available means of recording short conversational exchanges, such as the question concerning self-service in the cafe in Hamburg. As Lide and Lide (2) have pointed out, the genre model in creating this sort of material should be the American television commercial with its ability to dramatize an entire situation in two or three sequences within sixty, thirty, or even ten seconds. A short

bit of video footage of no more than five seconds is usually sufficient to establish the context before the exchange itself, and actual conversational exchanges between strangers are short, usually involving no more than one major turn per speaker and one conversation terminator.

The video camera offers a vast potential for dramatizing a large number of entirely separate conversational exchanges and even individual set phrases. Among the possibilities are introductions [including the reciprocal reflexive *Nous nous connaissons bien* (We know each other/ourselves well), or the German equivalent *Wir kennen uns schon*], farewell expressions (*Darf ich mich verabschieden?*), asking directions, and making purchases (in full-service bakery and butcher shops, for example), to name only a few.

To ensure authenticity, it is essential that set phrases be dramatized as they actually occur, and that conversational exchanges be experienced on site and scripted immediately afterwards. Otherwise, one can create a long dialogue of the sort in which the learner pesters the ticket agent in the railroad station for detailed departure and arrival times, when in real life he or she should read that information from the departure poster. The profession should focus on speech acts for which there is a real need.

The Potential of Videodisc Technology

The exciting potential of a video technology capable of a high-quality freeze frame and instantaneous random access can hardly be exaggerated. As a breed, foreign language teachers are notoriously faultfinding about their teaching materials, so that no coherent program of such materials can be expected to satisfy all innovative teachers. Teachers and departments are also understandably reluctant to buy an expensive video series that requires the reorganization of one or more entire courses around it. Furthermore, if instructors at the college level are to use video-delivered materials in class in addition to the regular textbook, class time is at a premium; many course supervisors and department heads persist in defining teaching success in terms of covering a given amount of material in the book. The solution to all three of these problems lies in a computer-driven video player connected to a large monitor, with the entire system permanently installed in the classroom. With such a system, a huge body of materials can be accessed selectively as occasions present themselves, without restructuring courses, and with efficient use of class time.

The unmet need in the profession is for a substantial body of materials created for use in this fashion. In producing these materials, three principles should be kept in mind:

1. *Discontinuity.* The individual disc should not be thought of as a single-theme resource but rather as a resource base for selective viewing. Still photography is discontinuous by its very nature, and youthful American audiences have been conditioned to discontinuity from childhood on by watching fast cuts in movies, TV programs, and commercials.
2. *Brevity.* The material should be concentrated, not only for compactness of storage but also to make efficient use of precious class and laboratory time. Clips for teaching reading should be programmed to go to freeze frame as soon as the zoom-in or voiceover is complete. Again, Americans are conditioned to brevity in their viewing of short TV commercials. Brevity is also an important means of controlling costs.
3. *Maximum simplicity of production values.* In video, elaborate production values drive up costs; consequently, they take the creation of materials out of the hands of foreign language professionals and place them into those of producers and marketers. It is understandable that no American commercial enterprise or foreign government information agency wishes to be connected with materials that are so amateurish as to invite derision. But painful amateurishness is a function of what is achieved in relation to what is attempted. If sequences are long and plots ambitious, the results will, of course, be disastrous if the acting is wooden and the directing clumsy. But embarrassment is less likely to be the outcome if what one attempts is more modest and utilitarian. Furthermore, if the principles of discontinuity and brevity are adhered to, the entire storage vehicle will be thought of as a collection by various hands, and a few clips of marginal quality will not impair the usefulness of the rest of the collection.

In the laser videodisc, technology now exists to deliver efficiently, in random-access fashion, authentic camera-produced materials to foreign language learners. There is some expectation that the laser disc can be developed into a read-and-write medium (*Wall Street Journal*, 9), and the

next half decade may well see the commercialization of still another video technology that will combine the read-and-write characteristics of the VCR with the compact storage, high-quality freeze frame, and immediate random access of the laser disc. The foreign language profession must continue to examine the feasibility of the laser disc and to be ready with experience and suitable materials for delivery by any new technology.

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3
Listening: What's Really Going on in the Classroom?

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Listening comprehension has been the focus of several recent articles in second language journals. In spite of the attention in professional literature and the good intentions of classroom teachers, students continue to perceive listening comprehension as their weakest skill. But are we really teaching our students to be good listeners or are we hoping that this essential skill will develop on its own? This article will elaborate some of the reasons for the current low levels of listening proficiency in our students and suggest some strategies and techniques for improving the situation.

The Literature

Listening comprehension has been identified as the first (chronologically) and most important language skill. Many prominent second language educators (Byrnes, 3; Krashen and Terrell, 8; Winitz, 14) feel that comprehension logically precedes production and that no production can take place unless listening competence is built up through comprehending linguistic input. Krashen (8) has defined comprehensible input as speech that contains understandable messages and forms slightly beyond the learners' actual level of competence.

Research in listening spans the past five decades (Devine, 4), yet there is little consensus on what actually occurs during the comprehension process. Obviously, one of the main reasons for the lack of accord is the fact that listening is not a readily observable skill like speaking, writing, or even

reading. It has, at times, been called a passive skill, although I prefer the term *receptive*. A process that converts sound waves to meaning in the brain implies an active, not a passive, skill. Richards (13) has drawn from native language research in speech act theory to provide us with a theory of the processes involved in second language listening comprehension, which includes the following:

1. The type of interactional act or speech event in which the listener is involved is determined (conversation, lecture, discussion, debate, etc.).
2. Scripts relevant to the particular situation are recalled (e.g., a visit to the dentist).
3. The speaker's goals are inferred through reference to the situation, script, and sequential position of the utterance.
4. Propositional meaning (the basic units of meaning involved in comprehension) of the utterance is determined.
5. Illocutionary meaning (determining the speaker's intention) is assigned to the message.
6. Information is retained and acted upon; the form in which it was originally received is deleted.

The Reality

Early in 1985, beginning Spanish classes were studied in order to find out what kinds of learning activities were being presented, to what extent students were engaging in those activities, and how the instructors were managing the classes.[1] Six different instructors were involved in the study; half were native speakers of Spanish and half were non-native speakers. Teaching experience ranged from two to seven years. The Observational System for Instructional Analysis (Hough, 5) was used to code classroom behaviors of students and instructors. (See Table 1.)

The results show that listening activities accounted for only .02 of total classroom time, while grammar activities constituted about .56. Vocabulary, which contributes heavily to listening comprehension, accounted for only another .07 of the total observed time. A further and more distributing analysis of the data reveals that five of the instructors did not include a single developmental listening activity in their lesson

Table 1
Observed Learning Activities

Type of Activity	*Proportion to Total Instructional Time*
Listening	.02
Speaking	.13
Reading	.07
Writing	.00
Grammar	.56
Culture	.07
Vocabulary	.07
Other*	.08
Total	1.00

*Includes classroom management and review for quizzes and tests

plans. Did the students enrolled in these classes listen to the target language at all? The results shown in Table 1 include only those activities that were intended specifically for the development and practice of listening skills. Of course, students actually did hear some target language input. Teacher talk accounted for .58 of total classroom time, while student talk accounted for .28. Silence made up the remaining .14 of total instructional time. Target language input comprised .22 of all teacher talk. Interestingly, student target language output came to .23 of total classroom time.

What was the target language input like? The data reveal that teacher questions comprised the bulk of target language input. It is not surprising, then, that student answers to those questions formed the largest category of target language output. Presumably, students who were not answering questions were listening to their classmates' answers—another source of Spanish input.

Were these students proficient listeners? According to the descriptions of the ACTFL Provisional Proficiency Guidelines (1) for listening, most would be ranked at the Novice level. They may recognize interrogative forms and key vocabulary items that enable them to provide responses to teacher questions about grammar, dialogues, and other textbook exercises, but the majority were not proficient at understanding connected

discourse and conversation. Although the sample for this study was small and confined to one university, it conforms with results obtained in similar studies (Nerenz, 12; Long, 9).

Why Teach Listening?

Many second language teachers have asked why so much emphasis should be placed on listening comprehension. The vast majority of our students will not travel abroad nor come in contact with native speakers in their own cities. They have little opportunity beyond the classroom to use their language skills. Yet many of the same teachers who question the place of listening practice often stress oral communication in their classes. Teaching only the productive aspect of communication is like teaching half the process. In order for true communication to take place, there must be a sender and a receiver who comprehends the message—and proficient communicators must be able to play both roles. Needless to say, I do not advocate the elimination of speaking practice, nor of grammar, from the curriculum. What we as teachers must do is allocate time for learning activities in a more logical manner, emphasizing listening and vocabulary more at the early stages of second language acquisition. In addition to rounding out the communication process, the ability to comprehend spoken language gives students a sense of confidence and control over the language that knowledge of grammar rules does not.

What Kinds of Practice?

Belasco provides further insight on how to achieve listening competence: "In order to understand the spoken language at an effective level, it is absolutely essential for one to be trained to listen at that level. This means spending a lot of time listening to what native speakers listen to. Contrived materials must be generously . . . supplemented by 'live' materials" (2, p. 18). This section will focus on some types of "live" materials that are effective for use with beginning and intermediate language learners. Before embarking on a campaign to improve students' listening skills, it is important to remember that total comprehension in all situations is impossible to achieve even in one's native language. Part of the problem is due to the open-ended nature of vocabulary; we can never completely

master the vocabulary of any language. In addition, second language learners' listening proficiency is affected by factors that do not inhibit native speakers. Limited vocabulary, lack of scripts, rapidity of speech, and tenseness, for example, may render students unable to chunk speech into meaningful segments. Our goal, therefore, should be to help students overcome the tendency to panic over the individual parts of a message and lose their train of thought. As Krashen says, they must learn to go for the meaning rather than word-for-word translations. Getting the main idea is the point of listening comprehension.

Advance Organizers

When teaching beginners and intermediate language learners, we must help them get organized for effective listening. Providing students with some advance information on what they will be hearing can often help them focus on the main ideas instead of individual words. This technique is often essential when using taped materials. The organizer can be a simple statement or it can be more detailed. Many types of advance organizers, such as the following, can be used both for listening and reading activities.[2]

Simple introductory statements. "You will hear two French students, Véronique and Chantal, discussing their favorite activities," or "Elinora is giving her professor an excuse for not doing her project."

Background information. In an intermediate class, give a short presentation on the life, types of subject matter, and images used by a songwriter or poet before playing or reading a sample work.

Key vocabulary. A short list of key vocabulary items is often an effective advance organizer because it removes stumbling blocks to comprehension.

Excerpts. Used as advance organizers, excerpts from the listening passage can pique the curiosity enough to get students to pay close attention to the details that follow.

Comprehension questions. Finally, a set of comprehension questions given prior to the listening activity helps students focus on the main idea. Depending on the types of questions used, this exercise can help students develop the ability to listen for details, as well as for the main idea. Students should study the questions in advance but not try to write the answers during the presentation itself.

Demonstrations

Beginners are able to pick up a great deal of vocabulary and gain confidence in listening comprehension from watching and listening to demonstrations by their teachers or guest presenters. While structures need not be rigidly controlled (one can use past or future tenses if their meaning is visually obvious) the use of cognates and familiar vocabulary provide at the same time reinforcement of previous materials and good materials for developing listening skills. The following are the three main steps for any demonstration:

1. The presentation (telling the story).
2. Rephrasing the presentation.
3. Checking students' comprehension.

When giving demonstrations, it is helpful to use props, pictures, pantomime, and other visual aids to comprehension. In recounting a trip abroad, for example, the teacher can bring a suitcase to class. In it are packed a passport, airline ticket folder, boarding passes, museum tickets, travel brochures, a large map, and other items. Instead of using the items merely to drill vocabulary, the teacher tells the story of the trip using the artifacts to illustrate the comments. What is said should be rephrased often, just as it might occur in a real conversation. Cognates should be written on the board; what looks like an English word may not sound like it in the target language. Students probably will not understand every word in the demonstration. The teacher can encourage them not to worry about this natural phenomenon but rather to relax and watch to see what is pulled out of the suitcase next. These demonstrations can be followed by comprehension questions that can be answered in one or a few words. The following are some examples:

A. Yes/No (also, True/False or Logical/Absurd)
   1. Did I go to Granada?
   2. Did I take the bus to Toledo?
   3. Did I visit the Museum of Ceramics?

B. Short Answer
   1. How did I get to Barcelona?
   2. What did I eat in Valencia?
   3. Whom did I see in Madrid?

C. Either/Or
   1. Did I arrive in June or July?
   2. Was the weather hot or cold?
   3. Did I travel alone or with friends?

Another comprehension-checking technique is to ask a student to be the "interpreter" for the class. After the teacher finishes the demonstration, the interpreter (or interpreters) must tell the gist of the story to other members of the class. The gisting technique is actually the goal of listening practice. It determines if students have understood and can relate the content to others.

Other interesting types of demonstrations include slide shows, filmstrips for which the teacher provides the commentary, and descriptions of charts, posters, maps, or transparencies. Many times teachers think of these activities as treats that should be saved for special occasions, but they can actually be incorporated into the lesson plan more frequently with good results.

Audio-Motor Unit

The audio-motor unit (Kalivoda, et al., 6) is a special type of demonstration that is very effective in teaching listening comprehension. The teacher prepares a script of about twenty sentences in the target language. The sentences should be centered around a single topic, such as "getting ready for class," and should contain new as well as already familiar vocabulary and structures. The sentences are then taped on a cassette, preferably by a native speaker. In class, the teacher plays the tape once while pantomiming the sentences. The tape is played a second time while students join the teacher in acting out the script. This step may be repeated over a series of several classes, if necessary, but many times students are ready to "solo" at this point. Finally, the tape is played and students pantomime the sentences alone. At this time, the teacher may want to make an informal check of comprehension and vocabulary by giving words and phrases in the target language and having students provide the English gist or translation. Because of the visual and motor impact of the activity, learners' attention and retention rates are usually high.

Show-and-Tell

There are many variations on the theme of show-and-tell that can be used to good advantage as listening practice in the second language classroom. Students themselves can do simple show-and-tell activities even during the first week of instruction. Many textbooks present greetings and introductions that can be taught to students by having them insert the appropriate personal information. They can then stand before the class and tell about themselves—their names, where they are from, what they study, where they work, where they live now, etc. These introductions may be used as points of departure for listening practice. To check comprehension, questions such as "Where is Sherri from?" "Where does Ben work?" and "Does Susan live in a dormitory?" may be asked. In another variation of show-and-tell, students can bring artifacts to class and tell about their significance. Pictures of friends and family members are also very good show-and-tell items.

Students as Question-Askers

Students need not be confined to the role of question-answerers. Guest speakers are excellent stimuli for giving students practice in both listening and asking questions. Inviting native speakers to your classes has a twofold purpose: it allows students to hear other dialects of the target language, and it provides a special occasion for listening practice.

After listening to a live demonstration or presentation, comprehension may be checked by having students, rather than the teacher, ask the questions. The nature of the questions will indicate how well the students comprehended the material. With beginning and intermediate students, native speakers must be instructed to use a visual component in their presentation. The visual component can take the form of pantomime, pictures, slides, or other aids to comprehension. Talking more slowly or loudly generally does not help students comprehend, but careful selection of vocabulary, rephrasing, and paraphrasing do.

Making Incomprehensible Input Comprehensible

Realistically, there are many times when we enter a conversation in midstream, have no experience with the topic, or simply cannot comprehend for whatever reason. At this point, it is tempting for learners to throw in the towel. By teaching them to produce the right kinds of questions, however, they may be able to turn this incomprehensible input into something understandable.[3] Below are some suggestions for this type of practice.

Attention getters

1. Pardon me.
2. One moment, please.
3. Uh (or whatever sound is appropriate for your target language and culture).

Probing questions and statements

1. What were you saying?
2. Did you say . . . (e.g., Did you say that there are twelve children in your family?).
3. Please repeat that.
4. I didn't understand what you said about . . . (e.g., the math course you are taking).
5. Squid? (Insert any unfamiliar vocabulary item that seems to be causing the lack of comprehension.)

Conclusion

Our ultimate goal in teaching listening should be to help students achieve a level of listening comprehension that will enable them to comprehend native speakers talking about familiar topics at a normal rate of speech. Because commercially prepared tape packages that accompany the major second language textbooks still provide primarily pattern and repetition drills, it is important that we dedicate a major part of our preparation and teaching time to the development of this important skill.

Notes

1. The study was conducted by the author during the Winter 1985 Quarter at The Ohio State University.
2. A discussion of advance organizer techniques for reading appears in Medley (11).
3. Valdés has developed a number of learner strategies for making input comprehensible. See Long, et al. (10).

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4
Listening and Learning: Protocols and Processes

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When confronted with a second language, most learners react with a mixture of curiosity and frustration. The sounds are different, or at least they are used differently from those found in the native language. Words and phrases are arranged in unfamiliar ways. The printed page appears different as well, even if the second language uses the same alphabet and punctuation symbols as the native language. Unless one has already learned a second language, older learners, especially adults, often feel quite disoriented by what they hear and see in the second language classroom and, of course, in the real-life environment where the language is spoken and written.

At the same time, however, there are aspects of learning a second language that parallel those of the native language. Specifically for German and English, the alphabet is basically the same; many of the punctuation rules are similar; many words and phrases are similar in pronunciation, structure, and content; and many verbal cues (for example, those for questions or commands) are similar. In addition, American learners of second or foreign languages bring with them an entire background of learning how to deal with English language texts, both spoken and written, which can help them deal with texts in the target language. There is considerable rationale for using the native language to help learners classify the content and structure of target language material, at least in the receptive skills of reading and listening.

In other words, although much of the second language is new, substantial portions of it are familiar, if not in detail, then at least in broad categories. This report will describe one technique for helping students learn to tap some of the familiar text-processing skills in unfamiliar second language texts—that is, to make use of native language comprehension

skills that help them focus on what is comprehensible in the target language. The technique is called the "immediate recall protocol."

As described by Bernhardt (1), the immediate recall protocol offers a promising means of determining what a learner retains when asked to read a language text. Because learning depends upon training the short-term memory, tapping the content and structure of language contained in the short-term memory should yield insights into the processes that learners use, consciously or unconsciously, to perceive, absorb, and store language material. The rationale for using the immediate recall protocol procedure for reading comprehension should work equally well for listening comprehension.

There are a number of motivational reasons for encouraging listening skills early in the language learning experience, including evidence from research showing that language learners are able to progress in listening at a faster pace than in speaking. Lowe (6), for example, discusses the "(positive) offset hypothesis," which indicates that on the ACTFL Proficiency Scale most native English learners perform better in listening than speaking 47 percent of the time for French and as much as 76 percent of the time for Spanish. This offset (separation of one's proficiency levels) begins at the Novice High/Intermediate Low oral proficiency level for French, while it does not set in until the Intermediate High/Advanced oral proficiency level for Spanish.

There is also evidence from research on first language acquisition that listening is essential not only to language learning but also to learning in general. Sticht (8), for example, reports that as the ability to read increases, the need to have texts read or explained aloud decreases. The need to listen actively (Sticht's term is *auding*), however, is a crucial initial step in the development of other learning modalities.

In describing the immediate recall protocol for the elicitation of comprehension in reading in a second language, Bernhardt used short (200-word) reading texts, gave students time to read them, removed the texts, and then gave the students time in which to write, in English, what they thought they had understood from the text. A similar approach can be used for listening comprehension, except that a number of factors relevant to the listening mode must be kept in mind. The length of the text, measured in the number of words, does not always reflect the actual length of time it takes to listen to it. There are many features in spoken

language, such as speaker voice characteristics (sex, age, and emotional state, for example), volume and pitch, background sounds, etc., that are not present in printed texts but that aid considerably in the processing of listening material. In a debate between Sticht and Bever (8, p. 312), it was pointed out that, for example, pauses in spoken texts can facilitate or inhibit comprehension depending on where they occur, whereas in written texts the reader controls where pauses occur. Another difference pointed out by Sticht in his debate with Bever is that some texts are meant to be presented aloud; to read them silently makes them seem artificial and therefore less motivating and more difficult to process. Stage plays are prime examples of language that is meant to be listened to, not just read.

Bernhardt's and Sticht's analyses lead to the conclusion that any text running over approximately two hundred words without interruption, or approximately three minutes running time, will induce sensory overload in the short-term memory unless other factors, such as interest in the topic or its entertainment value (song, comedy, delivery, etc.), are present.

One further factor is the number of times a text should be listened to before a task is applied. In the research that Voss (9) conducted, subjects were allowed to listen to taped texts as often as they wanted. His texts, however, were very short (200–250 words) and the purpose was to have subjects transcribe in writing exactly what they heard. For purposes of creating a protocol under experimentally controllable conditions or for purposes of classroom testing, where understanding of the entire text as well as decoding of specific items in the text may be important, it may be necessary to restrict the number of times the tape is played. In discussing techniques involving the immediate recall protocol for listening, experience has shown that for short text segments (one minute or less), playing the taped text more than twice is unnecessary.

Techniques and a Text

The purpose of using the immediate recall protocol procedure for the teaching and testing of listening comprehension is to determine what kinds of information students learning German at the university level would produce when asked to listen to unfamiliar texts under conditions involving a minimum of direct teacher intervention, such as that used in worksheets, transcriptions, translations, and the like.

The techniques used for generating immediate recall protocols seem disarmingly simple to use in a classroom setting. A teacher could, of course, read a text aloud at normal speed and with the prosodic features normal to the target language. Students learn language best, however, when they hear a variety of voices and language situations. For that reason the technique will assume the availability of tape or cassette recordings of native speakers of the target language using the language at normal rates of speed in everyday situations. The procedure is as follows:

1. The tape segment should not be longer than one minute running time. Anything longer is difficult to use in a classroom setting, although it may be perfect for independent work at home or in a media center.
2. The speakers in the tape segment should have relatively clear voices, although not necessarily without background sounds. In other words, the speakers need not be recorded in a professional studio. There are currently many sources of useful listening material available that a teacher can choose from to try out as listening comprehension exercises.[1]
3. Students should be given in advance any vocabulary or structure items that might distract from comprehension. Proper names of people and places are notable examples. Especially at beginning levels of instruction, students often have difficulty distinguishing between proper names and other nouns. Thus, whether a person's name is "Martin Schlichenmeyer" or "Max Schmidt" is less important than what that person says.
4. Students should be given a brief statement about the topic of the tape segment. They might be told, for example, that they will hear a brief conversation between two students named Martin Schlichenmeyer and Helga Kunold, and that during the conversation the names of three cities (Berlin, Gottingen, and Stuttgart) will be mentioned.
5. Students should be given a specific task to perform while listening. For example, they might be asked to note what relationship the three place names have to the two students talking.
6. Students should listen to the tape segment once without taking notes.

7. Immediately after listening, students should write, in complete English sentences, what they thought they understood. They should be encouraged to write about the text as honestly as possible; there are no right or wrong answers at this stage. Because they can use their native language, students should experience little of the interference or reduced spontaneity that normally accompanies incomplete writing skills in the target language. This first protocol should take no more than two minutes, especially if the tape segment itself is not longer than one minute.
8. Students should draw a line under their first protocols and then listen to the tape segment a second time. This time, however, they may take written notes.
9. With their notes and their first protocols, students should write a second protocol. This will usually contain only the new information picked up during the second listening or corrections of information misunderstood during the first listening.
10. With both protocols and their notes, one of two things can occur. A discussion can follow (in the target language or in English) in which specific information is exchanged about the tape segment; or the teacher can collect the protocols, score them (as tests or as classwork/homework), and make decisions about the kinds of exercises that are needed to help students "fine tune" their listening in subsequent class sessions.

Scoring

Based on research by Meyer (7, pp. 91–105), who developed a system for assigning numerical values to protocols generated after the reading of prose passages, each listening protocol can be scored on the basis of the "idea units" recalled by each student. The scoring procedure yields a numerical value for each protocol that can be analyzed.

In the sample text at the end of this report (Kramsch and Crocker, 4, pp. 22–23), the brief dialogue between Helga Kunold and Martin Schlichenmeyer is broken down into 23 "idea units," which, incidentally, together provide a serviceable English paraphrase for readers of this report. Some of the sentences in the text have more than one idea unit. Martin says, for example, that he comes from the area around Stuttgart,

which could be interpreted by many slower listeners as his being from Stuttgart proper, rather than more specifically from the area around Stuttgart. Similarly, the idea that both students are in Berlin is embedded in a question about how long Helga has been there. In any event, there is enough information available that most listeners should have no difficulty recalling one or more ideas to put in their protocols.

Following the sample text's idea units are the first protocols from seven students (of a class of 20) in a third-year college-level composition/conversation course. The score for the number of idea units successfully recalled is indicated at the end of each protocol in brackets. Note that only the correct information supplied (italicized) is scored. The protocols are arranged from lowest number of correctly recalled idea units to the highest number.

The student who scored lowest (three idea units), for example, misunderstood the word *Vorlesung* (lecture) that is related to the verb *lesen* (to read). Additionally, the student put the woman in the wrong city: Helga is in Berlin, not Stuttgart. The student who scored highest gave what amounts to a translation of the entire dialogue, leaving out very few details. The students in between were generally able to recall the information related to the task of determining who Martin and Helga were and what their relationship was to the three cities mentioned. In addition, most students recognized the idea that Helga feels overwhelmed by the size of Berlin, which was reinforced not only by what she said, but by the slightly anxious way she spoke on the tape.

Teaching from Protocols

As a result of scoring the protocols, the teacher can actually see how well students understood the text, and can then make decisions as to how to proceed with this and similar texts. By the end of most first-year German courses, students can probably comprehend and talk about where people come from, using prepositional phrases like *aus* (from) *Göttingen* or *in Berlin*. It takes time and practice, however, to comprehend more precise information about a person's hometown, such as in *aus der Nähe von Stuttgart* (from near Stuttgart) or, in the less common form actually used by Martin in the tape segment, *aus der Gegend von Stuttgart* (from the region of Stuttgart). The same principle applies not only

to factual information but also to expressions of emotional attitudes, such as Martin's saying *gerne* (gladly) and sounding as though he is not completely thrilled about the prospect of showing Helga around Berlin.

Once students get used to hearing native speakers exchanging this kind of information, they can learn to focus on those cues that they can later use in their own speaking and writing. Before then, however, they should be given many opportunities to show to what extent they have understood such conversations. Sometimes unexpected dividends are realized. In the actual classroom situation where the above protocols were generated, one student indicated that Martin did not sound very enthusiastic about showing Helga Berlin, and wanted to know the German word for "enthusiasm" (*Begeisterung*). It is far better for students to ask than for teachers to demand!

Discussion

Most of us know how conversations between students, weather reports, editorials, fairy tales, or other brief narrative texts are created in our native language. It is, however, difficult for learners of a second language to know how similar examples in a second language are put together. In order to deal with texts in the new language, a learner needs extensive exposure to a variety of language in realistic situations. Otherwise, what results is a highly unstable pidgin second language superimposed on an extremely robust native language. A technique like the immediate recall protocol can assist students in dealing with dimensions in a text other than structures and vocabulary. It can also help the teacher determine exactly what students do understand in the target language without resorting to contrived worksheets.

At present, language teachers in the United States are engaged in a discussion that seeks to place the ability to do things with language back into the center of the language learning curriculum. The "doing" with language is at the heart of the concept of proficiency. For historical reasons, oral proficiency has been extensively researched and methodologies for its teaching and testing have been developed (Liskin-Gasparro, 5). Other skill areas, however, need instruments and procedures that are just as fine-tuned as the Oral Proficiency Interview. The immediate recall protocol might be one means by which a listening comprehension proficiency instrument can be developed.

The logistics of playing a sufficient number of taped segments to determine a person's listening proficiency level are somewhat disheartening. Listening requires spending a fixed amount of time dictated by the nature of the text and the machinery involved. People can read at any speed that their native talents and/or training allow. As Foulke (2) has shown, however, listening texts, even when compressed, still bring with them a rigid time frame that allows the listener relatively little control. Indeed, for effective comprehension of structurally, semantically, and thematically complex texts, it appears that actual text lengths of at least fifteen seconds and at least two listenings may be necessary before even the most proficient listeners can efficiently process information in them.

With continuing improvement in electronic media, however, and with ready availability of cassette recorders, students may practice listening to many and varied models of the spoken language. This listening practice increases their motivation to listen, their speed and efficiency in listening, and their overall language ability. Utilizing the examinee's native language minimizes distortions possibly present from deficient speaking or writing proficiency. Use of native language protocols, therefore, seems to offer both the teacher and the student the opportunity to make the learning of the second language much more dynamic.

Appendix

Tape Transcript (Kramsch and Crocker, 4, pp. 22–23)

M. Servus, ich heiße Martin Schlichenmeyer.
H. Morgen, mein Name ist Helga, Helga Kunold.
M. Wo kommst du eigentlich her?
H. Ich bin aus Göttingen. Und du?
M. Ich komme aus der Gegend von Stuttgart. Bist du jetzt schon lange in Berlin?
H. Nein, ich bin gerade jetzt angekommen. Ich kenne mich noch nicht so sehr gut aus. Die Stadt ist so groß. Kannst du mir vielleicht helfen?
M. Ja, nach der Vorlesung, gerne.
H. Gut, dann schauen wir etwas in der Stadt herum.
M. OK!

23 Idea Units

hello / my name is Martin Schlichenmeyer / hello / my name is Helga Kunold / where are you from? / I am from Göttingen / and you? / I am from Stuttgart / I am from near Stuttgart / Berlin / have you been in Berlin long? / no / I just arrived / I don't know my way around / the city is so big / can you help me? / yes / after the lecture / gladly / good / let's look at something / in the city / OK

Student Protocols*

AJ: Her name is *Helga*. She is *new in Stuttgart. She asks Martin for help*, and he offers to read something aloud to her. [3]

PM: The guy was *from Stuttgart*, Martin, but *the girl was not*. She was studying in Stuttgart and felt that *the city was too big*. Martin offered to help her and she accepted. [3]

JM: Helga has *just arrived in the city* and *is not familiar* with the area. Martin comes *from Stuttgart* and *is willing to help her* find her way around. [4]

*Correct information is italicized; student scores are in brackets.

MJ: The story takes place in *Berlin. M. has been there a little longer than H. H. asks for help* in the *huge city* of Berlin. She herself is from Stuttgart. *They* gave their *names* at the anfang. [6]

TK: A girl and boy meet *in Berlin. He is from Stuttgart* and has probably been there awhile. She is a bit *overwhelmed* by the *size of the city* and *asks him to show her around. He agrees* and they go off. [6]

PB: *Martin S.* meets *Helga K.* at the Uni in *Berlin*. Martin asks Helga *where she is from*. She answers *Göttingen*. She says *she is new* in Berlin and *does not know her way around*. He will *show her around* the city *after the lecture*. [9]

SN: 1. My name is *Martin*. 2. My name is *Helga*. 3. *Where are you from*(?) 4. I am from *Göttingen. And you?* Have you been *here (Berlin) long*. 5. I come from *near Stuttgart. Have you been here long*. 6. *No, only a short time*. The city is *so big. Can you help show me around?* 7. *Yes, after the lecture*. [16]

Notes

1. For German the slide and tape materials from Inter Nationes (Kennedy Allee 93, D 5300 Bonn 2, Federal Republic of Germany) offer many such examples. Also recommended is *Verstehen Sie das? ubungen zum Horverstandnis* (Jacobs, et al., 3) as well as the tape material produced to accompany *Reden Mitreden Dazwischenreden* (Kramsch and Crocker, 4).

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5
Listening Ability: Check It or Wreck It

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One need not delve very far into recently proposed teaching approaches such as Total Physical Response (Asher, 1) and Natural Approach (Krashen and Terrell, 3) to discover that, in each case, listening is an absolute essential. Further, even procedures that are not influenced by recently suggested methods and approaches emphasize listening as vitally important to success in language learning. One might expect that an element of such importance would be carefully evaluated whenever it may appear, but such is not the case. Listening is an active skill that accomplishes its communicative purpose differently from the other skills. Some teachers give verbal recognition to the importance of listening but fail to account for it in evaluating student performance. Teachers can collect written compositions for evaluation, can record and evaluate speech, and can maintain a count of things read; but it is more difficult to make a tangible record of accomplishments in listening. Less easily counted skills sometimes escape attention and are treated as if they were less meaningful than they truly are.

This situation might be acceptable were it not for one special characteristic of adolescent language learners. Invariably, items that do not affect grading are ignored in favor of those that do. The problem faced in a great many classrooms is that listening comprehension is recognized as essential by teachers and ignored by students to the detriment of their language development.

What is listening ability? Why is it important? What kinds of activities can be employed in teaching and testing listening comprehension? Most important, how might listening comprehension become part of a student's final grade without giving the impression that the teacher is grading a meaningless intangible? These questions are explored in this

paper. First, teaching and testing procedures will be briefly outlined. Then, a specific suggestion will be given for including the teaching and testing of listening comprehension in the student's grade.

What Is Listening?

Listening is a mental process made up of four essential elements: hearing, decoding, comprehension, and responding. Language teachers are concerned with all four to some extent, although they are more aware of their work with the last three. While language teachers have no control over a student's physical capacity to hear, they must provide a setting that gives students every possible opportunity to hear. Attempting to select classrooms with better acoustics, moving around the classroom when appropriate, seating those who have difficulty hearing so that they may hear to the best of their abilities, and being sure that recorders, radios, etc. are tuned to avoid distortion are a few of the provisions that most teachers make to assure hearing without giving these provisions much thought. Sometimes, however, they must be reported as conscious steps when teachers are asked what they are doing to assist in mainstreaming the hearing impaired.

Decoding is the process of distinguishing one part of a message from another. Teachers are concerned with decoding (sometimes called interpreting), for example, when they deal with sound discrimination (Did I say *baja* or *paja*?).

Comprehension is a multiple-step evaluative stage at which the decoded message is weighed so that the listener may decide how to use the message and how to respond to it. The product of the comprehension process is meaning—understanding what has been said just after it has been said.

Response is the final stage. The listener responds to indicate reception and processing of the message. Response need not be verbal. A nod will do. In language classes, we often ask students for a particular response. Asher (1) is only one of those who point out that asking for a complex verbal response at an inappropriate time will impede students' progress.

Why Is Listening Important?

There are at least three reasons for including listening in the curricular goals of all modern foreign language classrooms. First, listening experience serves as a motivator and facilitator. Students given a chance to listen without being immediately forced to speak will eventually develop a desire to speak (Asher, 1). This is as true of classrooms oriented toward language acquisition that require such prespeaking experiences as it is of more commonly encountered language classrooms that are oriented toward language learning (Krashen, 3).

Second, listening ability (or at least sound discrimination) has been shown to be a reliable predictor of success in language learning (Pimsleur, 4, p. 180). Further, while there may be no empirical evidence that the tendency to "be musical" (to "always have a melody running through one's head"), correlates with language learning aptitude, observant classroom teachers of foreign languages will note that many of their best students have such a musical tendency whether they play an instrument or not. Other listening skills that similarly seem to correlate with language learning ability include strong imitative ability and an empathic nature that quickly involves students with peers as unofficial counselors. Third, language teachers must remember (and most do) that their responsibilities are as much to their students as they are to their fields of study. ("I teach French but, primarily, I teach kids," said one understanding colleague.) That being the case, teachers must be aware that the kind of listening training done in first language elementary school classes and in foreign language classrooms at all levels may have an effect that extends far beyond subsequent success in language learning to general success in life. Steil, Summerfield, and deMare (5) interviewed chief executives of major American corporations to find that many believe that the listening ability they first developed as children has been critically important to their later success. No one suggests that language teachers promise their prospective students the job of chief executive officer of a major corporation as a result of studying a foreign language. Nonetheless, the listening work done in a language classroom contributes to the development of a skill used by successful leaders in all walks of life. Knowing this can provide teachers with one more reason to study foreign languages.

Listening is a valuable tool in foreign language teaching. Inclusion

of listening in the foreign language curriculum contributes to learning/acquisition and, perhaps even more important, has the potential for making significant contributions to the lifelong success of our students.

Teaching and Testing Listening: Sample Techniques

The literature of foreign language education is replete with extensive descriptions of teaching and testing procedures that are based on listening skills. A few techniques are provided herewith for the purpose of forming a behavioral definition that will enable the reader to visualize the kinds of teaching and testing of the listening skill proposed.

Teaching Procedures

Town Map (Harnishfeger, 2)

1. Draw a town map. Copy it for each student and include such features as a parking lot, several streets, a school, a town plaza, a courthouse, etc.
2. Students are told in the target language that they are to draw a line from place to place as orally instructed.
3. Later, students are asked to compare the lines they have drawn with one on an overhead projection.
4. Variation: Give directions to a specific place on the map without mentioning its name. Students need to identify the place by combining marks on the map with oral instructions.

Draw a Monster

1. Ask students to draw a monster in accord with specific oral instructions.
2. Instructions in the target language may include such things as "it has three legs and twelve eyes," etc.

CLOZE Song

1. Give students copies of the words to a song that is played on tape. In making student copies, leave some words out.
2. Play the tape and ask students to fill in the missing words.
3. The exercise can be varied in difficulty by changing the words omitted.

Testing Procedures

The best key to a valid testing program, of course, is the old saying, "teach what you test and test what you teach." Thus, the teaching devices themselves make some of the best tests there are. The examples for testing listed here differ, nonetheless, from those suggested for teaching to provide variety in both teaching and testing, since an idea for one can be converted to a procedure for the other. The following examples are from Valette (6):

1. **Appropriate-Inappropriate.** On hearing a brief dialogue in the target language, students are to determine whether the last utterance is appropriate or inappropriate.
   Example: Do you like to play tennis?
   Of course, my mother likes ice cream.
   Answer: Inappropriate
2. **True-False.** Students are to listen to statements and mark them true or false.
   Example: Stop signs are red.
   Answer: True

Listening and Grades

Given quantities of data about students' listening ability (the results of testing after teaching), how can the teacher specifically account for listening as a part of final grades? One viable plan is grading with a point system. This kind of system assigns an arbitrary value to the entire course. Depending on local systems, that value may be 1000, 100, or even 10 if one does not object to an occasional decimal. Each aspect of the course to be evaluated receives some portion of the arbitrary value. If the teacher determines that a final exam, for example, is worth 20 percent of the grade, 200 points of 1000 must be assigned to that test.

The flexibility allowed by a point system can provide any number of other variances from a more rigid format. One variance would allow teachers to include a separate listening score. It might be a subscore of a midterm or a final. It might also be a separate allotment of points for an activity such as listening to radio programs and making a "listening diary" of the occasional cognate a beginning student might be able to comprehend.

Here is an example of how a distribution of 1000 points might be made:

Listening	100
Homework	50
Notebook	50
Attendance	100
Regular Quizzes	200
Midterm	200
Final Exam	300
	1000

The point system can be adjusted in a host of ways to accommodate anything the teacher wishes to evaluate. Points can be allowed for a cultural project, a formal paper, or, as is recommended, additional forms of listening practice. By assigning a specific portion of the course's entire value to the listening skill, one makes what students may have considered intangible and unimportant quite tangible and important.

Listening is a fragile entity. If it does not receive specific attention in the evaluation of learning, it will cease to be valued by students, parents, and even teachers themselves. Yet, as indicated above, listening is a vitally important skill. Language teachers should strive to teach listening so that students may succeed both as language learners and, later, as effective communicators who are likely to be society's leaders. This, then, is the message about listening conveyed here: check it or wreck it.

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6
Achieving Proficiency Goals through Competency Guidelines

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The Need for Proficiency Achievement Goals

Ever since the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies issued its report in late 1979, the foreign language teaching profession has moved toward addressing one of the commission's major recommendations, the establishment of "language proficiency achievement goals for the end of each year of study at all levels, with special attention to speaking proficiency" (5). On the national level the issue of proficiency is being addressed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) through its development of proficiency guidelines. The ACTFL guidelines (7), however, only rank the learner's achievement and, therefore, although they are useful for determining professional competency and for curriculum planning, they fail to address instructional levels in defining learning outcomes. Several states, including Indiana, have made an effort to define for the classroom teacher those learning outcomes or competencies that will lead to the desired proficiency at each level of instruction (6).

It should also be pointed out that proficiency has been a recurring theme in many of the national assessments that have appeared over the past several years. The Task Force of the Twentieth Century Fund points out, for example, that "every American public school student should have the opportunity to achieve proficiency in a second language" (2). The concept of proficiency, outside the profession at least, may mean some-

thing quite different than what foreign language educators have in the past viewed as essential learning outcomes. Rather than the ability to master isolated vocabulary and certain grammatical and structural concepts, proficiency means the "spontaneous use of language and productive cultural interaction" (Higgs, 1). It is this concept of "productive cultural interaction," an outcome that results from communicating in or "spontaneously using" the second language, on which the Indiana guidelines have been based. It was felt by the Indiana group involved in the development of its guidelines that the cultural component of language learning cannot be isolated but must remain an integral part in defining the particular competencies that are to produce desired proficiencies at various levels of instruction.

The Development Process and the Format of the Guidelines

To achieve this necessary interaction of communication and culture in defining desired learning outcomes, the Indiana Task Force on Foreign Languages determined that such learning outcomes will need to be expressed in terms of communicative competencies and organized under generic cultural contexts. Thus, the guidelines define the proficiency to be achieved at each level of instruction by specifying 25 to 30 communicative competencies that the student will need in order to function as a user of the target language. These competencies are further categorized by the cultural context in which they may be needed. The first step in the process of developing the guidelines, therefore, was to identify these cultural contexts. Based on broad, general cultural topics that are common to a majority of the modern foreign language textbooks adopted in Indiana, nine such contexts were identified: Travel/Transportation; the "World" of the Target Language; School and Education; Family and Home; Leisure Time; Meeting Personal Needs; World of Work; Fine Arts; and Politics and History. The cultural contexts were, in turn, more precisely defined by specific cultural situations such as ordering a meal in a restaurant, getting around in a city, obtaining lodging, etc. The communicative competency under each cultural context and within each specific cultural situation is a short description of what students should be able to do at the end of the level of instruction. The basic task is also defined with a list of language skills necessary to achieve the competency; the linguistic con-

tent, i.e., grammar and vocabulary necessary; and a suggested evaluation schema.

To illustrate a variety of competencies and how they relate to various generic cultural contexts, the four examples below come from each level of instruction.

1. **Level:** One
   Generic Cultural Context: Meeting Personal Needs
   Specific Cultural Situation: "Small Talk"
   Basic Task: Self-expression, states of being
   Communicative Competence: Given a series of situations, a student will respond by describing his/her state of being.
   Examples:
   It's 7:00 p.m. and you didn't have lunch. (I'm hungry.)
   It's December and you are waiting for a bus. (I'm cold.)
   You have been playing soccer all afternoon. (I'm tired.)
   Skill(s): Listening/Speaking
   Linguistic Content: Vocabulary: adjectives, expressions and idioms related to states of being. Structure: expressions of states of being
   Evaluation Schema: Structural Accuracy of Communication scale
2. **Level:** Two
   Generic Cultural Context: Family and Home
   Specific Cultural Situation: Entertaining
   Basic Task: Applying learned information
   Communicative Competence: Roleplaying a situation in which he/she will be hosting a foreign student for a weekend, the student will plan at least one day of meals and activities (e.g., meeting family friends, touring the city, etc.).
   Skill(s): Writing
   Linguistic Content: Vocabulary: meals, foods, dishes, beverages, activities, places. Structure: telling time, subordination, future tense, sequencing
   Evaluation Schema: Accuracy of written work
3. **Level:** Three
   Generic Cultural Context: Fine Arts
   Specific Cultural Situation: Visual Arts

Basic Task: Applying learned information

Communicative Competence: Simulating a visit to a famous museum (e.g., the Prado, the Louvre), the student will roleplay a tour guide, describing each of several works and their artists in two or three sentences each.

Skill(s): Reading/Speaking

Evaluation Schema: Comprehensibility rating scale

4. **Level:** Four

Generic Cultural Context: History and Politics

Specific Cultural Situation: Current Movements

Basic Task: Organizing information

Communicative Competence: The student, using popular print media, will research the various points of view on a contemporary political movement in the target culture (e.g., the antinuclear movement, women's liberation, elections, etc.) and contrast them.

Skill(s): Reading/Writing

Evaluation Schema: Structural Accuracy of Communication rating scale plus the Amount of Relevant Information rating scale

While the above examples illustrate types of competencies in a variety of cultural contexts and at the four levels of instruction, another aspect that was addressed in developing the guidelines was the need for certain competencies to be reentered throughout the sequence.

An example of reentry occurs under the generic cultural context of Travel/Transportation. In Level One a competency requires the student to name the various modes of transportation he or she "used" in traveling from place to place based on an imaginary itinerary given to the student. In Level Two the student uses a bus or train schedule to identify a tour he or she wants to take by describing the time of departure, the length of the trip, some key features, and the time of return. In Level Three communicative skills in this cultural context are expanded further by requiring the student to select a famous tourist attraction and describe it as if he or she were a tour guide. In Level Four the communicative competency states: "Given an opening statement such as 'If I were a millionaire,' the student will describe his or her fantasy trip around the world, explaining the choices made."

Thus, an attempt has been made to assure that certain competencies introduced at lower levels will continue to be refined and expanded at higher levels. At this point it should also be noted that a level is defined as one year of instruction in grades 9–12, two years in junior high or middle school, and three years in the intermediate grades (4–6).

A very important component of the guidelines is the evaluation schema described for each communicative competency. These are provided to assist the teacher in evaluating each competency and to encourage the development of a classroom testing program that will measure the global communicative skills described in each competency. As is pointed out in the guidelines: "Pencil-and-paper fill-in-the-blank tests are not capable of measuring global communicative skills, that is, communicative competencies, in reading, writing, listening, and especially speaking" (6).

Because teachers on the task force felt that existing rating scales were too complex, difficult, and time-consuming for use in a classroom situation, rating scales were devised to aid the teacher in the evaluation process. Simplified versions of existing scales along with one new scale were developed in four areas: comprehensibility, amount of relevant information, structural accuracy, and level of performance. For each scale there is a general definition along with three "scale level definitions." Points assigned to each level were arbitrarily chosen as one point for the lowest level, three points for the second level, and five points for the highest level. The designation of points for each scale level in this way allows for a broader numerical range of scores and eliminates the need to work with fractional or decimal scores. The scales, therefore, are actually five-point scales with a definition provided for the lowest, mid-level, and highest. The four scales that were developed follow.

Scale for Comprehensibility

General Definition: Comprehensibility refers to the ability of the student to convey meaning and to make himself or herself understood.

Scale Definitions	*Points*
Comprehended some phrases or word clusters	1
Comprehended short simple sentences	3
Comprehended all of what student said or wrote	5

Scale for Amount of Relevant Information

General Definition: Amount of communication refers to the quantity of information relevant to the communicative situation the student is able to convey.

Scale Definitions	*Points*
Very little relevant information was conveyed by student	1
A fair amount of relevant information was conveyed	3
Most or all relevant information was conveyed by student	5

Scale for Structural Accuracy of Communication

General Definition: Structural accuracy of communication refers to the linguistic (grammatical) correctness of the student's statements.

Scale Definitions	*Points*
Very few statements were structurally correct	1
Many statements were structurally correct	3
Most or all statements were structurally correct	5

Scale for Level of Performance

General Definition: The purpose of this scale is to evaluate whether or not the student is performing at the level of the class for which he or she is enrolled. *This scale should only be used at the higher levels of instruction—Level III and above.* Although the student may perform well on the three previous scales, his or her performance may still reflect very simple language in terms of structure and syntax and thus he or she does not meet the criteria for a Level III or above class. This is a scale for a Level III student.

Scale Definitions	*Points*
The communication is more appropriate to Level I with minimal responses, the use of simple sentences, and frequent requests for slowed speech or repetition of the question(s).	1
The communication is more appropriate to Level II, for although the student converses somewhat more extensively than a rank beginner, he or she does not provide details or use compound or complex sentences.	3

> The communication is appropriate to Level III, in the amount of communication, the use of compound and/or complex sentences, and the more detailed information. 5
>
> In adjusting the scale for use with Level IV students, the teacher might use Levels II, III, and IV, by adding "The communication is appropriate to Level IV, for the student is an interesting communicator, providing details, solving problems, improvising as necessary, and persuading or arguing as necessary."

It should be noted that the kinds of rating scales described above are not necessarily applicable to or usable with every communicative competency. Those competencies involving the receptive skills—listening comprehension and reading—may best be evaluated by testing instruments and procedures already being utilized by teachers or those published to accompany textbooks.

Developing Culturally Oriented, Competency-Based Curricula

The Indiana Modern Foreign Language Generic Competencies Levels I–IV (6), like the specific-language guidelines now in the process of development, use the word *proficiency* to describe the learner's global abilities at the end of a set term of instruction. The guidelines specify, for example, that by the end of Level One, a modern foreign language student should be able to do the following:

1. Participate in brief conversations on familiar topics, with some concentration, meeting very basic travel and personal needs, using simple sentences, and asking for slowed speech or repetition when necessary.
2. Comprehend the spoken language in the form of directions, commands, questions, structured conversations, and simple narrative descriptions.
3. Read graded narrative and cultural materials on familiar topics.
4. Write any language that can be produced orally.
5. Understand the appropriate behavior and etiquette in a limited number of social situations.
6. Demonstrate increasing awareness of other world areas and views.

The word *competency,* on the other hand, is used to denote some finite use to which the learner can put the language, a function he or she can perform. The generic guidelines define approximately 30 competencies for each level of instruction.

Once teachers have familiarized themselves with the Indiana state guidelines, they must establish those competencies that will constitute each level of instruction in the sequences offered in their schools. In some situations, this will be done by a consensus of the teachers in a school district and in others, by an individual teacher.

Realism says that Levels One and Two will consist of 20 to 25 competencies. Levels Three and Four, given the greater complexity of the performances required, will consist of 15 to 20 competencies.

Through no overt design, the definition of the competencies led to the capability to distinguish among the levels. Each level of competencies produces a pattern with its own character.

Level One: Developing Basic Survival Skills
Level Two: Experiencing the Culture(s) Vicariously
Level Three: Using the Language as a Vehicle for Learning
Level Four: Expanding One's Personal and Intellectual Horizons

This kind of diversification of the purposes of each level is another contribution to developing student and public understanding of what kinds of proficiency can be expected at each stage of the sequence.

As teachers define the competencies comprising the curriculum at each level or year of instruction, they will have to study two levels (i.e., Levels One and Two or Levels Two and Three) to find the best fit with their instructional priorities and teaching materials. In the process they will find that they can take many of the competencies directly from the state guidelines, but they will also have to compose some of their own using the state competencies as models.

One point must be made clear. Testing and evaluation should not be withheld until the end of the term, even though the *collective* competencies make up a proficiency level to be attained at the end of a given term of instruction. The competencies, most of which represent activities that good teachers are already using in their classes, are meant to be tested and evaluated as it becomes appropriate—throughout the year.

Lesson Planning in Culturally Oriented, Competency-Based Instruction

To illustrate the lesson planning elements needed to implement competency-based instruction, the Level One competency of Food and Meals from the generic cultural context of Travel/Transportation will be used. That competency is as follows:

> Given an authentic menu, the student will listen to a conversation in which two people are ordering a meal and indicate on his/her copy of the menu what each has ordered.

In preparing the students to meet competencies, the teacher should use all the exercises and drills occurring in the textbook. Because of current increased emphasis on listening comprehension in the early levels, there should be the same emphasis on drills and practice.

Teachers may want to incorporate the kinds of listening activities suggested in the draft copy of the New York State Syllabus *Modern Languages for Secondary Schools* (3):

> Given a series of 15 sets of pictures (four to a set) of fruits and vegetables (meat, poultry, and seafood; beverages), the student is able to demonstrate listening comprehension by matching the appropriate picture in each set with a preceding oral stimulus.

Because reading menus seldom involves generic names of foods, teachers should include the kind of menu-reading exercises for students proposed by Phillips (4, p. 287):

1. List the basic food words (which are often different from those in the text vocabulary).
2. List descriptive words.
3. Identify cooking method words, such as *broil*, *fry*, and *roast*.
4. List eye appeal words, such as *golden brown*, *ripe*, and *fresh*.
5. List size words, such as *jumbo* and *petite*.
6. Identify such specialty words as *Neapolitan*, *Maurice*, and *chef's*.

There must be practices in menu-reading in which students identify main ingredients in dishes so that they are able to read menus intelligently and express some likes and dislikes.

No one should make the mistake, however, of not providing speaking and writing practice to meet this competency, as well as listening and reading experiences. Students need every kind of reinforcement at all times. Because the listening competency involves a menu, the teacher may want to conduct either or both of the following activities:

1. A small-group activity for three in which students alternate roles, two serving as customers and one as a waiter or waitress recording their orders.
2. A chain drill in which students take turns ordering appetizers, entrées, desserts, and so on, with each student in class selecting two students whose orders he or she is to record.

Because the competency asks students to listen to a conversation between two people ordering a meal, a recording of such a conversation is needed. If this is not a component of the textbook tapes, teachers may ask more advanced students to perform this task as a recorded speaking activity and then select the best tape (or have the student select it). Others who may help provide such a recording are teacher candidates on field experiences, student teachers, or colleagues.

The advantage of this competency is that the entire class can perform at one time—and the whole performance will not take more than five or ten minutes.

When the students reach the second level, the reentered competency is a speaking/reading exercise rather than a listening/reading one and it has a problem-solving dimension:

> Given an authentic menu and a set amount of money to spend, the student will, with the teacher serving as waiter or waitress, order a complete meal he or she can afford.

As preparation for this activity, students will need the same basic preparation they needed for Level One competency, but they will need a variety of drills on the currency to help them deal with that facet of the problem. Here are some activities that may help students:

1. A small-group activity of four in which students rotate roles—three serving as customers, one as waiter or waitress. Each customer adds up his or her bill and the waiter or waitress adds them all.

2. A chain drill in which students take turns ordering meals and tallying checks.
3. A written exercise in which students must order three complete meals and tally the checks for each. (These could be a breakfast, lunch, and dinner, or three lunches or three dinners.)

This competency is not difficult to administer. The teacher, waiter, or waitress can wait on three or four students at a time—while others are practicing with a tape or preparing a written exercise due at the end of the period.

While students in Level One can express simple likes and dislikes, by the time they reach Level Three, they should be able to express dissatisfaction and ask for redress. In Level Three, then, there is a more complex competency:

> Given an authentic menu, the students in threes will role-play a situation in a restaurant in which several facets of the service are unsatisfactory.

Students may be prepared for this competency through problem-posing situations such as the following:

1. A table setting is missing. A fork is missing at one place and a napkin at another. What comment would you make and what would you ask the waiter or waitress?
2. There is a dirty dish and lipstick on your cup or glass. How would you approach the waiter or waitress?
3. The service is very slow. Your two friends have been served their entrées and all but finished their meal, but you have not yet been served. How would you point out the problem to the waiter or waitress?

These would be good topics to "negotiate" in small groups in order to explore the full range of possible responses to the problems posed.

This type of situation lends itself very well to role playing. Students may be assigned their roles on 3″ x 5″ cards.

> Boy: This is your first date with this girl and you want to impress her. Order only the most expensive items on the menu.
>
> Girl: This is your first date with this boy and you are very nervous. Order only what he orders.

Waiter or Waitress: Let both customers order, then have only one serving available.

This type of structuring builds in some of the spontaneity of real-life experiences. Since waiters and waitresses usually take a woman's order first, the girl will have to find out what her date is going to have in order to replicate it. Both customers will then have to negotiate who gets the one serving available and make another selection.

If the teacher wants another kind of competency for either Level Two or Level Three, he or she might require students to order meals for a set amount of money or evaluate with a rating scale their small talk throughout the meal, for that type of casual exchange is all too often neglected in the classroom.

Conclusion

The Indiana Modern Foreign Language Generic Competencies Levels I–IV (6) have three basic goals:

1. To establish what proficiency is at the end of each level of instruction through sets of competencies or learning outcomes to be achieved throughout that level of instruction.
2. To define progress throughout the sequence in terms that students and the public can readily understand.
3. To integrate culture and communication at every level of instruction in the sequence.

The superordinate goal, however, is to produce students who are communicatively competent and culturally sensitive in their dealings with native speakers in this country and as travelers, students, or workers abroad. It is our strong feeling that one cannot establish proficiency tests until a proficiency-oriented, competency-based curriculum has been designed and is being implemented.

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7
Classroom Activities: Oral Proficiency in Action

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As language teachers we are at a crossroads, or perhaps better stated, at the threshold of where we are going and what we have yet to achieve. The oral proficiency wave has appeared with energy and excitement and with the potential for reforming and revitalizing the entire scope of foreign language instruction. Indeed, some would say that the revitalization has already happened, although few would argue that the curricular impact has yet hit with the force necessary to convert objectives to reality.

Oral Proficiency—Where Are We?

Exactly where are we in terms of oral proficiency? The answer cannot, by the very nature of the question, be an exact one. For the sake of clarification, however, it may be valuable to attempt a general assessment of where we are in terms of where we have the potential for going.

The profession seems to have arrived at a point of tentative commitment to the proficiency concept. Attempts are underway to communicate with those outside the profession, as well as those within, concerning both direction and process. The attempt to communicate with legislators and educators who come from outside the profession is strategically important, since in some areas policies are being considered or have already been instituted that have a direct impact upon foreign language curriculum and instruction. If proficiency standards are to be set, those involved must have a clear understanding of what oral proficiency is and what it is not. Oral proficiency is not a measure of what students know about language. It is, however, a measure of how they use language in authentic communicative

settings. Oral proficiency acquired in an instructional setting is not necessarily related directly to time invested and it cannot be measured by conventional achievement tests. Instead, assessments should be made of students' ability to understand spoken language and respond appropriately in a given cultural-situational context. Levels of attainment will reflect experience in language use as opposed to years of language study.

Although the oral proficiency message has been carried forward and heard by those on the foreign language teaching front, the battle is not won. Foreign language teachers may be committed philosophically to the concept that we are teaching a skill in addition to knowledge, and we may have acknowledged that the skill is the more important objective in the eyes of our students, but we must still decide how to proceed. Most current textbooks are of very little help in developing oral skills. Texts are grammatically conceived and are not written to develop listening and speaking proficiency as the first priority, despite claims to the contrary. But the profession has not demanded such textbooks.

In the best of all possible worlds, the committed foreign language teacher would write a proficiency-oriented curriculum including oral, reading, and writing skills. The reality is, however, that when the text is inadequate, the average teacher lacks the time and resources to produce the required instructional materials. Help is needed.

Oral Proficiency—What Has Been Done?

Today's emphasis on proficiency is a logical extension of past strategies that have become more clearly focused as a result of the potential of the oral proficiency interview. Foreign language teachers have felt the frustration of having students who were openly disappointed with functional skill-using abilities when traveling abroad or speaking with someone in the target language. Students tell us, "I can recite medieval poetry (or conjugate an irregular verb), but I can't ask where the bathroom is in the target language." In effect we have been unaware of the need to teach for everyday communicative competency, or we have assumed that it would result automatically from knowledge of grammatical structure.

In 1971, recognizing the need to emphasize communication skills in the curriculum, the Department of Education of the State of Nebraska through the Division of Instructional Services published a booklet entitled

Simulations in Foreign Language (4); *Simulations Level 2* (5) followed in 1976. Communication objectives were stated, and simulation topics such as introductions, telephone communications, shopping, and card and letter writing were chosen. The intent was to have students use language in situations not unlike those they would expect to encounter within the context of the target culture. The objectives of *Simulations* generally coincided with those of today's oral proficiency activities, as the examples below illustrate, but they were expressed in the acceptable behavioral terminology of the 1970s.

1. The student will introduce two people, showing them proper recognition and giving a brief statement to identify each, with correct structure and acceptable pronunciation/intonation.
   a. Mention first the older of the two or the person of higher social rank.
   b. Give a brief statement to identify the persons being introduced, e.g., occupation, hobby, mutual acquaintances, etc. (4, p. 4).
2. The student will engage in a telephone conversation with a classmate; identify himself or herself, deliver and take a message, and end the conversation with correct structure and acceptable pronunciation/intonation (4, p. 22).
3. The student will "purchase" an item from a store clerk (another student). The simulation will include:
   a. a greeting
   b. at least two references concerning the item (e.g., color, size, price, etc.) and
   c. payment for the items, with correct structure and acceptable pronunciation/intonation (4, p. 26).

In 1977 the Nebraska Department of Education published *Strategies for Communication*, materials developed in a workshop at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (6). The purpose of the publication was to assist classroom teachers in structuring learning situations that encourage the use of language for meaningful interpersonal communication early in language learning. The strategies were intended to bring together skill-getting (drill) and skill-using to help students communicate authentically in the target language. In 1978 *Strategies for Communication, Book II* was published by the Nebraska State Department of Education (7). Many

of the strategies involved students in creating with language. These strategies clearly fulfill the objectives of an oral proficiency oriented curriculum.

Oral Proficiency—Update

In the summer of 1985, the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, the Nebraska Foreign Language Association, and the Nebraska State Department of Education jointly sponsored a workshop bringing together fifteen language instructors. The objective was to create oral proficiency activities to supplement first level texts in French, Spanish, and German. It was decided to coordinate the activities with the texts used in the greatest number of schools locally. In Spanish the texts supplemented were *Churros y chocolate* (1) and *Spanish for Mastery I* (9); in French, *Son et Sens* (8); and in German, *German Today, One* (2) and *Unsere Freunde* (10). Situations aimed at skill-using were created for each unit and coordinated with the vocabulary and grammar of that unit. The situations were designed and sequenced for functional use of language at Novice and Intermediate proficiency levels. The activities are subsequently being tried, evaluated, and revised by their authors and others for later publication. Representative examples follow:[1]

1. **"Travel Agency"** is designed for use with *Spanish for Mastery I*, Unit 1, Part 5. Paper and pencil are needed. Students work in pairs.

   Linguistic functions: Seeking and imparting information.

   Situation: You are working in a travel agency. Your job is to fill out the information cards. Ask the client for the following information:
   a. Today's date
   b. Age
   c. Where from (city, state, country)
   d. Date of birth

2. **"What Are You Doing after_____?"** is designed for *Spanish for Mastery I*, Unit 5, Part 2. Students work in pairs and each needs a printed copy of the situation.

Linguistic function: Seeking and imparting information.

Situation: You and your friend ask each other what you are doing "after" various activities (choosing from the following list) in order to find out something about your new schedules. Be sure that the person answering one question asks the next so that both get a chance to ask and answer a question. What are you doing after_____?

For example:

the baseball game / the dance / Spanish class / lunch / the party

3. **"New for Spring"** is a situation designed for Unit 3 of *Churros y chocolate*. Pictures or items of clothing are needed. Students work in pairs.

   Linguistic function: Expressing or inquiring about preferences.

   Situation: You work with another person in a clothing store. The owner has left a stock of pictures of new clothes that he or she ordered for the store. You and your coworker look through them and react to the clothes and color combinations that you see.

4. **"Finding Your Double"** coordinates with Unit 24 of *Churros y chocolate*. Students need forms for recording information. (Cultural authenticity could be added by discussing how a Hispanic person's schedule might be different.) This activity involves the entire class.

   Linguistic function: Seeking and imparting information.

   Situation: Your task is to find a college roommate who would be most compatible with you in daily habits. Conflict can then be avoided.

   Directions: Students fill out the daily record sheet individually. When finished, everyone mingles in the class, asking in the target language when the others get up, brush their teeth, etc. At the end of the time period, the teacher asks the students for the search results, stating which students' daily habits matched. These

student matches are potential roommates and can be paired for future activities.

5. **"Don't Sit in My Desk"** is designed for use with *Son et Sens*, Unit 3. Students work in pairs and real classroom items are used.

   Linguistic function: Referential—item identification.

   Situation: It's the beginning of a new quarter and a student is transferred into your class. Because you and the other students have long since established your territory in the classroom and because this new kid is very concrete and needs everything explained to him or her, your teacher has asked you to show the new person just exactly what items in the room (e.g., desk, table, chair) are already claimed and what are his or hers. In pairs, students role-play a new student and a classroom-wise student. Using possessive determiners, they take turns making statements about classroom items (e.g., it is my desk; it is his desk; it is your desk). The teacher may specify the number of statements and/or time limit.

6. **"Who Was That Masked Man/Woman?"** coordinates with *Son et Sens*, Unit 3. Students work in pairs.

   Linguistic function: Imparting factual information—describing.

   Situation: You have witnessed a serious crime and are the police's only lead to capturing the culprit. Your job, should you choose to accept it, is to describe the criminal in as much detail as possible. The police plan to use your description for an A.P.B. and require specificity and accuracy.

   Directions: Students role-play the parts of witness and police detective, each student assuming each role. The police detective asks the witness a series of questions (e.g., What color is her dress? Is he wearing a coat?). (The teacher may require a certain number of questions/answers.) The witness must answer the questions according to his or her "suspect description" (e.g., Her dress is red; He's not wearing a coat.). Sample "persons" to describe for police artists:

a. He is . . . wearing a jacket / wearing pants / wearing socks / wearing shoes / wearing a shirt / wearing a tie
b. She is . . . carrying a purse / carrying an umbrella / wearing a dress / wearing hose / wearing a hat / wearing a watch
c. He is . . . wearing a swimsuit / wearing a cap / wearing a sweater / wearing an earring / wearing gloves / wearing a necklace
d. She is . . . wearing shorts / wearing a blouse / wearing a ring / wearing a belt / wearing glasses / wearing a scarf.

Note: Colors and other adjectives may be added for more specific descriptions of the persons and clothing (e.g., He's wearing a little purple hat.).

7. **"Getting to Know You"** coordinates with Unit 4 of *Son et Sens*. Individuals interact within the context of a larger group.

Linguistic function: Socializing—getting acquainted.

Situation: You are attending a dance at the city recreation center. Although you know very few people in attendance, you look marvelous, Darling, and all the handsome guys/beautiful girls are asking you to dance. You want to come off really smooth, so you keep up a steady stream of small talk and find out as much as you can about each partner.

Directions: Students make two circles, one inside the other. Students in the inside circle face out and students on the outside circle face in as the inside circle rotates counterclockwise, giving students the opportunity to have a new partner each time the teacher instructs them to change partners. Persons in the inside circle ask questions and partners in the outside circle respond. Depending on number and size of circles and time, the two circles may switch question/answer roles. French music playing in the background lends a more realistic party atmosphere to the activity.

8. **"My Family"** represents a less formally structured activity to accompany *Son et Sens*, Unit 12. Students bring family pictures to describe to their French host families.

Linguistic function: Imparting information—describing personal characteristics.

Directions include: Talk about personal characteristics of the family members. Try to capture the essence (key trait) of each person.

9. "**Mine's Better**" is designed for use with *German Today, One*, Unit 13. Students work in pairs and need blank paper and pencil for recording.

   Linguistic function: Interpersonal—"one-upmanship."

   Directions: Each student chooses an area of the world and pretends that he or she lives there. The pairs then find themselves involved in a bragging contest, taking turns making comparative or superlative statements about their country, its weather, and its people. If desired, students could also bring the contest into the personal realm making statements about their families and themselves. After the session is over, each student writes his or her partner's best five brags.

10. "**Chores**" is designed for use with *German Today, One*, Unit 14.

    Linguistic function: Imparting information—justifying.

    Directions: Divide the class into pairs. One person takes the role of the teenager asking the parent for a raise in allowance. The other takes the role of a parent who asks the teenager to justify the raise by telling what he or she did around the house this past weekend. The parent jots down the activities using the past participle—e.g., "cooked dinner" (*Abendessen gekocht*). The parent may also help by asking questions such as "Did you mow the lawn?" The object is to see which pair can get the longest list of chores to justify the raise.

11. "**Partner Interview**" coordinates with *Unsere Freunde*, Unit 6. Students work in pairs and take 2–3 minutes to report to class. Students need paper or a 3″ x 5″ card and pencil.

Linguistic function: Seeking and imparting information; interpersonal—introducing.

Directions: Select partners. Each person has the task of finding out as much as possible about his or her partner in a five-minute block of time, so that he or she is then able to introduce the person interviewed to the class. The class can then ask additional questions in instances where they would like more information or clarification. Each interviewer is to take notes and plan a two- to three-minute introduction to the class of the person interviewed.

12. **"Telephone Conversations"** is designed for use with *Unsere Freunde*, Unit 6. Students need pairs of cards describing possible telephone conversations.

Linguistic functions: Seeking and imparting information.

Directions: Distribute one set of situation cards to each pair of students. These cards describe a situation in which a phone call is necessary to find out certain information. The students must then conduct a short telephone conversation and answer the question at the bottom of each situation card. As a check, the teacher should collect the situation cards and look to see that the questions have been answered correctly. Selected pairs of students could also present their telephone conversations to the rest of the class.

Situations:

CONVERSATION 1A: Your name is Hanni. You're working on your homework for tomorrow. You've already finished the exercises for Math (they were really hard), but you forgot to write down the English assignment. Your grade in English is borderline, so you can't afford not to do the assignment. You decide to call your friend Max. You ask him what's new and whether he knows what the English assignment is for tomorrow. After he tells you, he asks whether you have the Math assignment done yet, and if the problems are hard. You thank him for the information and say good-bye.

What is your English assignment for tomorrow?

CONVERSATION 1B: Your name is Max. You were just working on the composition that is due for English tomorrow when the phone rings. You answer with an appropriate greeting. It's your friend, Hanni. She asks what's new, and you reply "nothing." It turns out that she's forgotten to write down the assignment for English (again!), so you tell her what it is. You still have to do your Math assignment, and you ask Hanni whether she has worked the problems already. You also want to know whether they are difficult or not. (You're getting really tired of doing homework, and you're hoping they are really easy.) Hanni can't talk too long, so you say "so long" and hang up.

Has Hanni finished the Math assignment yet? Are the problems difficult?

13. **"Watching TV"** is coordinated with Unit 24 of *Unsere Freunde*. Students work in pairs and need situation cards. Each pair of students will receive a card describing one of three situations having to do with watching TV, and specifying the role to be played.

Linguistic functions: Persuading, forbidding, and/or expressing and inquiring about preferences.

Situations:

a. An exchange student and his or her host mother discuss viewing interests and habits.
b. Two siblings want to watch two different shows at the same time.
c. A parent tells a son/daughter that there will be no TV watching until all homework is finished.

Directions: Distribute cards; give students a minute to think about their roles before beginning the activity. At the end of the activity, call for on-the-spot samples, assign students to present their dialogues to the class the next day, or have students write a paragraph recapping the conversation (in the conversational past tense) as part of a letter to a friend.

14. **"Food Fight,"** a supplement to *Unsere Freunde*, Unit 15, encourages students to retell their versions of an event and reach agreement on the facts of the matter. It may involve the whole class or small groups. No materials are needed.

    Linguistic function: Describing past events.

    Situation: The worst imaginable food fight has happened in the school cafeteria. A group of rowdy juniors has insulted a group of proud and easily wounded seniors. You were an eyewitness to this incredibly wild event. Tell what you saw and who was involved. Who else saw the fight? What food was thrown? What was done to quell the violence? What happened to the students involved?

After Level One—Then What?

At the upper levels of language learning (third and fourth year), the instructor should be able to exercise considerable latitude in structuring the class. Activities designed for use with advanced levels are based on *Conversations in Spanish: Points of Departure* (3). The text, which is also available in French and German, is organized thematically. Each lesson deals with a specific vocabulary such as the telephone, the library, the pharmacy, the family budget, or the art of selling. The vocabulary lists are easily supplemented and an oral proficiency activity may be created to emphasize a specific linguistic function. Examples follow that illustrate these possibilities.

1. **"Funds for the Children's Zoo"** is used with the lesson "El zoológico." The activity focuses on persuasion as a linguistic function. Students work in pairs. The children's zoo administrator is trying to convince a representative of a charitable institution to give money for the zoo by telling him or her what the zoo needs. Student One is the zoo administrator and Student Two is the chair of the fund-granting charitable organization. Students are asked to use zoo vocabulary to persuade someone to do something (in this case to give money).

2. **"Buying a car"** is used with the lesson "El automóvil." The linguistic functions are: giving or asking for information, giving or asking for opinion, persuading, clarifying. An automobile salesperson and a prospective customer are discussing the advantages and disadvantages of a particular car on the floor. Student One, the salesperson, points out all the advantages of the car in question. Student Two, the customer, asks specific questions about the car he or she considers purchasing.

These are fairly open activities that are best used when students have had prior experience with situational oral proficiency activities as they presume some linguistic initiative on the part of the student.

Oral Proficiency—How Do We Make It Happen?

Oral proficiency activities can be particularly productive if they are designed to capitalize on the backgrounds and the interests of the learners. The instructor should make an attempt to tailor oral proficiency activities to the personality of the class as a whole. Some classes truly enjoy activities that allow for creative and humorous expression, while a more matter-of-fact approach seems appropriate for others. What is most important is that the instructional environment offer the student opportunity to create with language in realistic situations.

The activities designed in the 1985 workshop provide a wide range of topics, situations, and instances of authentic language use. While some—designated "game" or "student-centered guided practice"—more closely resemble skill-getting, the majority require creative use of language in a simulated context. A few are structured as "real communication." An example would include any activity designed for students (and teachers) to learn more about one another or to express their personal ideas, beliefs, and opinions (see 11 above, "Partner Interview," for example). Additionally, teachers should be sensitive to serendipitous opportunities for real communication and capitalize on them.

The following specific techniques are suggested to facilitate implementation of the activities:

1. In the large group, provide preliminary warmup, review of vocabulary/structure required for the activity, or other preparatory activity.

2. Make the general situation visible to students by writing it on the chalkboard beforehand, using a transparency, or providing a handout.
3. Model the activity (assisted by a student, hand puppets, stick figures, visual aids, etc.) as needed.
4. Answer questions.
5. Give grouping instructions and hand out situation cards or other materials to be used.
6. Move persons or furniture if necessary. (Prior organization or rearrangement of desks is preferable.)
7. Circulate and assist (or simply listen) as students carry out the activity. Do not correct or otherwise disrupt or distract student efforts.
8. Use a prearranged signal to end the activity and regain the entire class's attention.
9. Call for student feedback, sample student achievement of the objective (accomplishment of task), collect papers, or otherwise provide closure.
10. If the activity was graded or used as an assessment of student progress, provide appropriate feedback to students.

Conclusion

It is important to introduce and facilitate oral activities with enthusiasm in a climate of mutual support and spirit of cooperation. Students should understand that mistakes are inevitable but not fatal, and that each attempt will build greater ease and confidence in using the language for communication. Oral proficiency activities may well provide the means to bring affective and skills-development objectives into closer harmony and, therefore, closer to the professional vision of "where we hope to be" at the end of the next decade.

Notes

1. Oral Proficiency Curriculum Design, 1985: Sidney L. Hahn, University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Director; Melvin Nielsen, Nebraska Department of Education; Rosalie Boehmer, Lincoln; Mary Renee Chi, Millard; Marilyn Gordon, Fremont; Cecelia Hahn, Lincoln; William Hammelmann, Lincoln; Elizabeth Hoffman, Omaha; Sandra Hoffman, Millard; Joyce Michaelis, Nebraska Wes-

leyan University-Lincoln; Sara Pankonin, Grand Island; Duveen Penner, Wilber; Fred Schelert, Lincoln; Tamara Stassen, Syracuse; Molly Tooley, Lincoln; Marie Trayer, Millard; Linda Susan Webster, Lincoln.

2. Authors of activities in the order cited: "Travel Agency" and "What Are You Doing after _____?" Rosalie Boehmer, Marilyn Gordon, Joyce Michaelis, and Sara Pankonin; "New for Spring," Sandra Hoffman; "Finding Your Double," Marie Trayer; "Don't Sit in My Desk," "Who Was That Masked Man/Woman?" and "Getting to Know You," Linda Susan Webster and Cecilia Hahn; "My Family," Molly Tooley; "Mine's Better" and "Chores," Mary Renee Chi; "Partner Interview," William Hammelmann; "Telephone Conversation" and "Watching TV," Duveen Penner; "Food Fight," Fred Schelert, Tamara Stassen and Elizabeth Hoffman; "Funds for the Children's Zoo" and "Buying a Car," Joyce Michaelis.

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8
Let Your Students Do the Talking: Pattern Practices in a Partner System

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One of the greatest problems facing teachers today and in the near future is larger classes. From the days of audiolingualism, foreign language teachers have known that class size should be below 20 so that all students can benefit from being able to speak the language each day. The pendulum has already begun to swing back from the days of too many teachers. In years to come fewer university graduates will have chosen the teaching profession. Foreign language teachers will be fewer and, therefore, may be asked to teach 35 students or more in one class period.

Large classes tend to make teachers very aware of time on task. Snyder (5) has pointed out that housekeeping duties, student-caused off-task time, outside interruptions, giving directions, changing activities, and other taking-care-of-business activities can steal from two to ten minutes per class each day. Teachers must recognize that it is crucial to plan lessons that increase each student's opportunities for speaking the foreign language. After studying many foreign language classes, however, Mueller (3) commented that the structure of the typical lesson consisted of a dull point-by-point rundown of the textbook's exercises, often punctuated by fuzzy grammar explanations and reading and translating uninteresting passages.

Time in the classroom must be used wisely, especially when enrollment is high. As larger classes become more common, the prevalent practice of teacher question/student response becomes less practical in the

foreign language classroom. Honeycutt and Vernon (2) have pointed out that teachers need to develop new strategies to allow students to ask questions. There is no reason that the teacher must ask questions and the students respond, nor that only one person can be speaking at any one time. There are many typical situations in which more than one conversation may be taking place at the same moment.

The following section describes a system that allows each student in the class equal opportunity to speak the language, while at the same time minimizes the apprehension many feel when asked to recite or answer in class. The system works equally well in classes of 20 or 40. It also demands that students ask and answer an equal number of questions and that they remain on task throughout the entire exercise.

Classroom Pairing System

In the Classroom Pairing System (CPS) partners ask and answer questions or simply make statements to each other according to the visuals they are holding. CPS is a hands-on approach to learning foreign language using illustrated cards whereby all students in a class can practice orally all the material presented by the teacher in any particular lesson. The system is not designed, however, to elicit creative responses by students. CPS is a simple pattern practice system that allows students to practice orally with a partner. After answering according to the picture card(s) in hand, the cards are passed on to the next pair until every student has had all the cards. Many students are talking at the same time and the lesson is fast-paced. The approach can be used at any level or in any language. D'Va Illustrated Cards[1] are used as the visuals in the examples given below, but teacher- or student-made visuals can be just as effective as long as they are all in the same category and there are enough for the class.

Why Visuals?

Of course, pairs of students could practice exercises from their text, and even this is preferable to having the teacher direct one-question/one-answer exercises from the book. Visuals, however, offer a more interesting alternative to necessary but often rather dry grammatical pattern practices. Certainly not all grammatical concepts can be visualized—for example, "to be," "to be going to," or "must"—but visuals do provide another

dimension, a new alternative to understanding. Many recent textbooks have wonderful illustrations of verbs, activities, and even grammatical concepts that previously had been stated only in words. In most cases these visuals are pleasing to the eye and many times quite amusing.

In a study by Dwyer and Harper, the effectiveness of black and white line drawings to teach grammatical concepts in German was evaluated: "Forty minutes was spent teaching the nonvisual group the concept as opposed to nineteen with the visual group. It took more time—in fact, twice as much—to explain the grammar point in the conventional way than it did in the approach utilizing visualization; and after the instructional presentation, both groups tested approximately the same." (1, p. 232) The use of visuals to teach grammatical concepts increases time on task.

For years foreign language teachers have used visuals; in this video age it becomes even more important to incorporate them. Foreign language catalogs are sources of published materials such as vocabulary cards, but often these materials do not relate to the vocabulary in the textbook. Teachers work long and hard to make their own sets of visuals, cutting and pasting pictures from magazines, cornering the art teacher to find the best art students, or finally, in desperation, attempting to draw something themselves.

Sets of good visuals, however, are now available from a variety of sources, and with access to lamination, teachers can allow students to use the visuals as well. There is no reason why visuals need be used only in front of the classroom. Given 20 pictures illustrating regular first conjugation verbs, for example, a class of 40 students could practice all 20 verbs in a short time by working in pairs.

Why Partners?

Using partners for practice is logical. In most conversations one person asks a question and one person answers. Pairs are also less threatening than groups and certainly less intimidating than an entire class. Students are more willing to talk to one other person without being embarrassed about making a mistake than they are to make a statement to an entire class. Although small group work is common in many foreign language classes, there is a tendency to get off task, especially if one or more students are uncooperative. Even the slowest or most apathetic student participates

when the class practices in pairs. Active participation also insures that they will not be doing other work in class, grooming themselves, falling asleep, or daydreaming. Instead, the lesson is very fast paced and the pattern changes three, four, or even five times a minute. Finally, when using CPS all students must be on task because each succeeding pair of students depends on the previous pair to give new information to them and they, in turn, have to pass along their material.

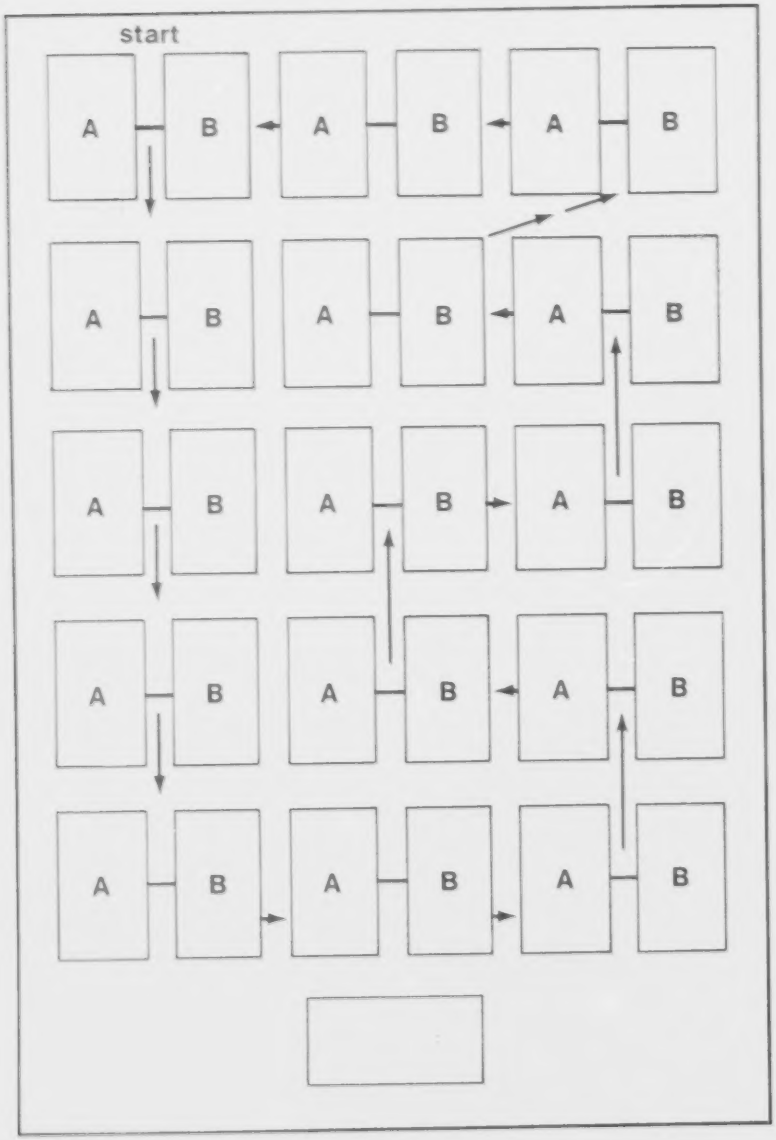
CPS Procedure

A traditional seating arrangement seems to work best in large classes. Any arrangement that allows for an even number of rows to accommodate partners is satisfactory. Each student has a partner sitting next to him or her; each pair receives a picture card. In small classes each student will receive a card. After practicing the drill (10 to 30 seconds) each pair will pass their card to the next pair and receive a new card from a different pair (see Figure 1). In this way all students practice a particular pattern with 15 to 40 substitutions, depending on class size and the number of visuals used in the exercise.

The teacher needs to do several things before beginning a pattern practice with the class using hands-on visuals:

1. Assign partners. Partners may remain the same for a month, six weeks, or an entire quarter if the teacher permits.
2. Practice the card-passing routine to avoid confusion that might stop the flow of language practice.
3. Be sure words in the foreign language are written on the back of each card. If the English meaning might be ambiguous, write both languages.
4. Demonstrate thoroughly the pattern to be practiced before expecting students to practice in pairs.
5. Determine in advance a cue word for the passing of cards.
6. Be sure that the last pair of students is sitting next to the first pair so that no students need to leave their seats in order to pass the cards.
7. If the class has an uneven number of students, the teacher becomes a partner.

Figure 1. CPS Seating Arrangement



As stated above, it is important that the teacher demonstrate the pattern to be practiced. Usually the "asker" holds the visual and the "answerer" responds according to that picture card. There are times, however, when the object of the exercise may be to practice vocabulary not yet mastered; then the person with the card might read from the back of the card while the partner listens.

The teacher needs to be careful not to allow too much time for a pattern. It is better for a partnership to give up their cards early than for another to sit with nothing to do.

The following are examples of pattern practices that can be used in both French and Spanish, in beginning, intermediate, and advanced classes. A variety of visuals is used in the examples and there is truly a limitless number of patterns that can be created by the teacher for students to practice.

The first examples demonstrate the system using one card per pair and then one card per person, using the same category. The student answering the question looks at his or her partner's card to receive the clue for the answer.

Example 1. (See Figure 2.) Beginning Level Spanish—Places (one picture card per *pair*)

(with "beach" card)	A: ¿Adónde vas?	(approximately
	B: Voy a la playa.	10 seconds)
Teacher cue word	¡Olé!	(pairs pass/ receive card)
(with "café" card)	B: ¿Adónde vas?	(approx.
	A: Voy al café.	10 seconds)
Teacher cue word	¡Olé!	(pairs pass/ receive card)

Example 1a. Beginning Level Spanish—Places (one picture card per *student*)

(with "beach" card)	A: ¿Adónde vas?	(approx.
(with "café" card)	B: Voy a la playa.	20 seconds)
	¿Adónde vas tú?	
	A: Yo voy al café.	

Teacher cue word	¡Olé!	(pairs pass/ receive cards)
(with "museum" card)	B: ¿Adónde vas?	(approx.
(with "airport" card)	A: Voy al museo. ¿Adónde vas tú?	20 seconds)
	B: Yo voy al aeropuerto.	

Example 2. (See Figure 3.) Intermediate Level French—Reflexive Verbs (one picture card per *pair*)

(with "wake up" card)	A: A quelle heure est-ce que tu te réveilles?
	B: Je me réveille à . . . heures.
Teacher cue word	Salut!
(with "shave" card)	B: A quelle heure est-ce que tu te rases?
	A: Je me rase à . . . heures.

Example 2a. Intermediate Level French (one picture card per *student*)

(with "wake up" card)	A: A quelle heure est-ce que tu te réveilles?
(with "shave" card)	B: Je me réveille à . . . heures. A quelle heure est-ce que tu te rases?
	A: Je me rase à . . . heures.
Teacher cue word:	Salut!
(with "comb" card)	A: A quelle heure est-ce que tu te peignes?
(with "get dressed" card)	B: Je me peigne à . . . heures. A quelle heure est-ce que tu t'habilles?
	A: Je m'habille à . . . heures.

In the following examples only one picture card is used per pair but one can readily see in examples 1a and 2a how the procedure would be altered if each student were holding a card.

Example 3. (See Figure 4.) Intermediate Spanish—Imperfect Tense with Adjectives

(with "tall" card)	A: ¿Cómo eran tus amigos?

Figure 2.

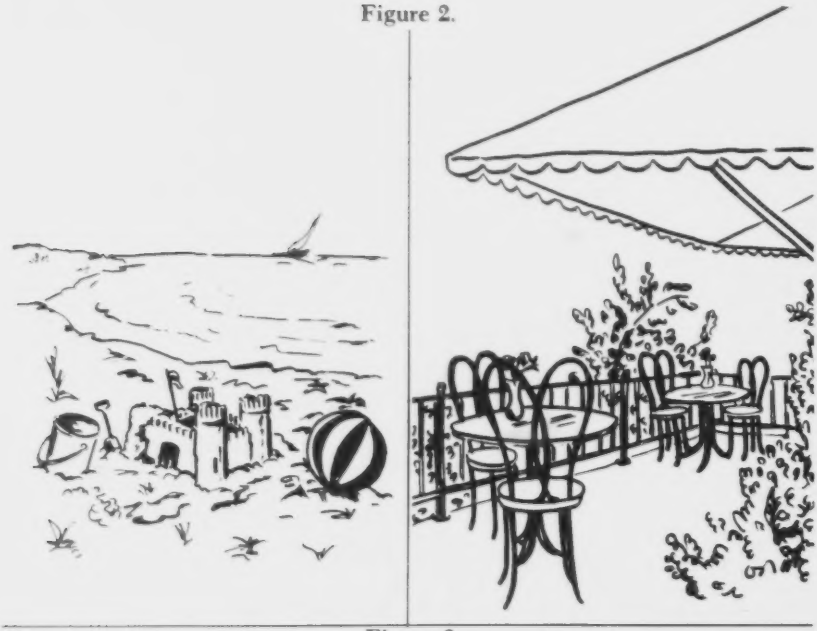


Figure 3.

	B: (Mis amigos) eran altos.
Teacher cue word.	¡Olé!
(with "good" card)	B: ¿Cómo eran tus amigos?
	A: (Mis amigos) eran buenos.

Example 4. (See Figure 5.) Advanced Spanish—Regular Second and Third Conjugation Verbs with Imperfect Subjunctive

(with "eat" card)	A: ¿Qué quería tu padre que hicieras?
	B: Mi padre quería que yo comiera el pollo.
Teacher cue word	¡Olé!
(with "letter" card)	B: ¿Qué quería tu padre que hicieras tú?
	A: Mi padre quería que yo escribiera una carta.

Example 5. Advanced French—Direct/Indirect Objects with Food

(with a card	A: Ils veulent cette glace.
depicting ice cream)	B: Donne-la-leur.
	A: Très bien, je la leur donnerai.
Teacher cue word	Salut!
(with a card	B: Ils veulent ces pâtisseries.
depicting pastries)	A: Donne-les-leur.
	B: Très bien, je les leur donnerai.

The above examples are only a few of the hundreds of creative patterns that can be practiced in any foreign language classroom. One is only limited by the kind and number of visuals.

Rivers (4) has stated that initial listening should be accompanied by visual cues to the meaning of pictures, objects, and actions. Given the short amount of time students are actually in the classroom and interacting with the language, using CPS will continue to reinforce vocabulary and grammatical concepts through the repeated use of hands-on visuals. Finally, as Rivers also states, visual cues help students think for themselves and keep them alert.

Creativity and real communication in the language are the goals of foreign language teachers today. Just as one cannot attempt division in

Figure 4.

Figure 5.

mathematics without having mastered multiplication, nor can students communicate in a foreign language if they have not mastered basic grammatical structures and concepts and memorized useful vocabulary.

The Classroom Pairing System is a student-centered system; it can be rewarding to the teacher and to the student, as well as fun and educational. CPS is a viable alternative to the more traditional use of classroom visuals and takes into account a visually oriented generation of students in today's classrooms.

Notes

1. Visuals created by DeMarest Hill of D'Va Illustrated Cards, 1496 Parkhill Road, Cleveland Heights, Ohio 44121.

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9
Building Reading Vocabulary through Inference: A Better Classification of Context Clues

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While speaking with second language learners, we are likely to conclude that their most urgent need is intensive oral practice. They lack control of the lexicon that is essential for fluency, they misuse and mispronounce words, and they frequently find themselves groping for the exact words needed to express their thoughts, even after years of study. But it is in the act of reading that the second language learner's small vocabulary becomes most problematic. At the survival level, students' productive vocabulary need not be as great as their receptive vocabulary. International students, for example, can make themselves understood in speaking and writing English—even if imperfectly and laboriously—with a relatively small vocabulary, perhaps as few as two or three thousand words. Without a much larger receptive vocabulary, however, they cannot understand very much of what native speakers say or write because native speakers regularly use words far beyond the students' limited lexicon. Without a larger receptive vocabulary, communication will be one-way; students will be able to give messages but not receive them.

Between the two receptive skills, a large vocabulary is less critical in listening, at least to normal conversations, than in reading. Native English speakers generally use a smaller vocabulary in speaking than in writing; in casual conversation the average native speaker probably uses a vocabulary of only around 2240 words (Mackey, 18). Reading requires a much larger vocabulary. According to Paulston and Bruder (21) students have

been right when they have complained about not knowing enough words; it is poor vocabulary that most interferes with students' reading. A student who knows 3000 selected English words will find that he or she does not know at least 10 to 20 percent of the words in unsimplified text, and the same learner reading a mass-market paperback book would find between 35 and 70 unknown words on each page (Honeyfield, 12). It is no wonder that students become discouraged when they encounter unsimplified prose!

The problem, then, is how to help students acquire the vocabulary they need to read unsimplified prose without frustration. How can this be done? Part of the solution lies in direct vocabulary instruction. The procedure followed in direct vocabulary instruction is to select the most frequent and useful words in the target language and then to devise activities and exercises that will help students learn these words. Direct instruction takes a giant step toward giving students an adequate vocabulary. Students who learn the 3000 most frequently used words will not know 10 to 20 percent of the words in unsimplified text, but they will know a remarkable 80 to 90 percent. After learning just 3000 of the 800,000 or so English words, international students know fully 80 to 90 percent of the words encountered in prose used by newspapers and popular magazines.

After the first 3000 English words, direct vocabulary instruction is, unfortunately, much less effective, so we can assume that the same is true for any other language that we are teaching. If international students learn the next 5000 most frequent words, they will be able to recognize only an additional 6 to 11 percent of written prose, perhaps around 95 percent altogether (Twaddell, 26). They would still be confronted by at least 15 unknown words per mass-paperback page, and probably considerably more for many books, especially college-level textbooks. Nevertheless, it may be worthwhile to provide direct instruction in these 5000 additional words, for the gains may outweigh the time and effort expended. But beyond this point, direct instruction becomes flagrantly inefficient, for the majority of words that remain unknown on each page are very low frequency words and are far too numerous to teach directly.

Let us explore the options that a reader has when an unknown word is encountered. What are the possible ways of coping with it? The reader has basically six options:

1. Ask someone the meaning.
2. Find a definition in a dictionary.
3. Guess at the word's meaning if it is a cognate.
4. Try to determine its meaning by analyzing prefixes, roots, and suffixes.
5. Continue reading without determining the meaning of the word.
6. Try to draw inferences about the word from the surrounding context (Twaddell, 26).

The first five options are easy to eliminate because they are not sufficiently productive. The first one tends to make the reader dependent on others, not independent, and there is seldom an expert around when the student is studying and needs help. The second option is greatly overused; it is time-consuming and tedious. The third is unreliable; what appears to be a cognate is often not. The fourth option, word analysis, is fruitful only infrequently and is sometimes misleading. The fifth option, simply to ignore the word, might actually be appropriate at times, since it is possible to understand an entire passage without understanding every word in it, but this is not very satisfying to conscientious students.

This leaves the sixth option—inferring the meaning of the word from context. This is the option that teachers should urge their students to follow first. It is the only feasible option that will help them expand their reading vocabulary to any great extent. This is the way native speakers build their 60,000-word vocabularies—by making sensible guesses about unfamiliar words. Unfortunately, they do not automatically transfer this skill to the learning of a second language. If we tell them to guess, we find that they simply do not know how. They must be systematically taught the skill of drawing inferences about unknown words and this teaching must be done so as not to create a seemingly impossible task. To be efficient and effective, we need to employ a good classification scheme of "context clues."

Developing a New Classification Scheme

Researchers interested in teaching students to be better readers in English have devoted much effort to developing context clue classification schemes. The authors have critically evaluated 21 such schemes and found all of them to be seriously flawed.[1] Most are unsatisfactory because they

fail to include important clue categories. Some do not merely omit a few categories; they omit entire classes of important categories. They are like a zoological taxonomy that fails to include the entire class of mammals or the entire class of fishes.

Existing classifications of context clues, for example, fail to catalog completely a very important class of clues that could be labeled "grammatical clues." The vast majority of categories in present classification schemes deal with semantic relationships rather than grammatical relationships among words in a sentence. Such categories as comparison, contrast, definition, example, and restatement are categories that focus on semantic relationships between the unknown word and the context. Yet it is possible to imagine an alternative approach to classification that would stress grammatical constituents (prepositional phrases, subjects, verbs, objects, adverbial phrases, conjunctions, and so on), indicating grammatical, not semantic, structural relationships between the unknown word and the context. The following sentence points out the distinction between these two classification approaches: "I wouldn't want to be either very *wealthy* or very poor." Most present classifications, taking a semantic approach, would say that this sentence contains a context clue. The contrast clue consists of the semantic relationship of contrast that exists between *wealthy* and *poor*. Yet a grammatical-constituent approach is also possible: one could say that the sentence contains a conjunctive-constituent clue, which consists of the conjunctive *either . . . or* together with the two adjective phrases that it conjoins. The syntactic function of the conjunctive *either . . . or* is to set up a disjunction between the two adjective phrases. The function of the intensifying adverb *very* in the two adjective phrases is to establish that the two adjectives, the two poles in the disjunction, are in fact two opposite extremes. In this way, the grammatical relationships among these words bring the reader to the conclusion that the first, unknown, adjective phrase (*very wealthy*) must be the direct opposite of the second, known, adjective phrase (*very poor*). According to the grammatical approach, then, it is grammatical relationships that lead the reader to infer the correct definition of the unknown word.

Given the importance of grammatical clues, the failure of most existing schemes to include any grammatical clues at all, and the failure of all to list grammatical clues in any detail, is unacceptable. All existing schemes have proved to be incomplete in their omission of this entire class of important context clues.

A second serious weakness of present classifications is their failure to provide a sensible framework for organizing context clue categories. They merely provide an unorganized list of clues that is quite difficult to learn and use. As a remedy for this weakness, we propose the following framework on which to organize our new classification scheme. It may be considerably easier to learn, and it will preclude the omission of any important category of context clues.

I. Direct-Explanation Clues
II. Overall-Context Clues
III. Trans-Sentence Clues: Structural Dimension (Rhetorical-Device Dimension)
Trans-Sentence Clues: Semantic Dimension (Rhetorical-Relationship Dimension)
IV. Intra-Sentence Clues: Structural Dimension (Grammatical-Constituent Dimension)
Intra-Sentence Clues: Semantic Dimension (Sentence-Meaning Dimension)

The third, and, perhaps, most serious weakness of present classifications is their failure to give proper stress to the two structural dimensions. Our classification scheme strongly emphasizes these dimensions. Now that we have constructed a practical framework, the next step is to flesh it out, to specify the particular clue categories that belong in each of the four groups.

Direct-Explanation Clues

The various categories of Direct-Explanation Clues, together with examples of each, are presented in Table 1. In the table, *X* is the term that the text seeks to define, and *Y* is the defining or clarifying word or phrase. Direct-Explanation Clues are the most important group of clues because they come the closest to giving dictionary definitions of words. Students should give these clues special attention.

Table 1
Direct-Explanation Clues

Clue Category	*Illustrative Sentences*
A. DEFINITION	
1. Direct Definition X is Y. X means Y.	By *kisteners* is meant all the words a person knows well. (Humes, 14, p. 328) A *tinal* is an evil spirit.
2. Appositival Constructions	
a. Simple Appositive X, Y,	The natives believed that *tinals*, evil spirits, lived beyond the river. (Humes, 14, p. 329)
b. *Or*-Appositive X, or Y	The natives believed that *tinals*, or evil spirits, lived beyond the river.
c. *That is*-Appositive X, that is, Y,	The natives believed that *tinals*, that is, evil spirits, lived beyond the river.
d. Dash Appositives X—Y—	The natives believed that *tinals*—evil spirits—lived beyond the river.
e. *Which is*-Appositive X, which is Y,	The natives believed that *tinals*, which are evil spirits, lived beyond the river.
f. Parentheses X(Y)	The natives believed that *tinals* (evil spirits) lived beyond the river.
3. Footnotes X° (at bottom of page)°Y	The natives believed that *tinals*° lived beyond the river. (at bottom of page) °evil spirits
B. EXAMPLE	
X like Y	Some scientists study *drieps* like height and weight. (Humes, 14, p. 331)
X, such as Y	In Kansas live many *rodents*, such as mice and prairie dogs.
X, for example, Y	Girls on the average consistently do better in the test items involving *esthetic response*, for example, matching colors and shapes and discriminating objects in pictures (Deighton, 8, p. 7)
X, e.g., Y X (e.g., Y) X, as in Y	*Rhetorical relationships* between sentences, for example, contrasts, restatements, and cause-effect relationships, can be useful context clues.

Overall-Context Clues

Overall-Context Clues differ greatly depending on the subject matter of the text. For works of fiction, Overall-Context Clues include mood and tone, setting, characterizations, and plot. In nonfiction works, the most useful Overall-Context Clues are the general topic of the text and the particular themes of the passage that contains the unknown word. General-topic clues can operate at a broad level. The typical unknown word in a chemistry text, for instance, is unlikely to mean "melodious" or "sonata," whereas these meanings might well fit unknown words in a music-history text. The particular themes and controlling ideas of a passage establish a framework by which readers can interpret and understand the sentence-by-sentence details. As readers use these themes to build expectations, they gain an edge in inferring the meanings of unknown words. Before this can happen, they must have some background knowledge of the subject area, of course.

Trans-Sentence Clues

Rhetorical-Device Dimension

Writers use particular devices to achieve rhetorical coherence between sentences. Students should learn to watch for these devices; they usually signal a meaningful connection between sentences that can help them narrow the meaning of an unknown word. According to Paulston and Bruder (21, p. 168), coherence is achieved by the following devices:

A. Transition words, of which there are four kinds:
   1. The same word repeated in the following sentence
   2. A synonym repeated in the following sentence
   3. Substitute and summary words such as *this, these, this idea, these three birds, that document, this kind of building, such a problem*
   4. Sentence connectives like *furthermore, however,* and *therefore*

B. Parallel structures in different sentences

C. Punctuation

Examples of these categories are presented in Table 2.

Rhetorical-Relationship Dimension

In principle there are thousands of different Rhetorical-Relationship Clues. Table 3 represents an effort to highlight the most common and useful ones. Note that the helpful neighboring sentence can come either before or after the sentence containing the unknown word.

There is a special connection between the 11 Rhetorical-Relationship categories and one of the Rhetorical-Device categories, specifically, the category of sentence connectives. These connectives signal the presence of particular rhetorical relationships. For instance, the sentence connectives *by contrast*, *conversely*, and *on the other hand* regularly signal the rhetorical relationship of contrast. (Mary is quite *industrious*. On the other hand, her brother is very lazy.) The connectives *as a result* and *consequently* always signal a cause-effect relationship. (The weather was very *blustery*. Consequently, the children could not play outside.) It can be very profitable for students to learn which sentence connectives are associated with which rhetorical relationships. A list of English common sentence connectives that signal each category of rhetorical relationship is presented in Table 4.

Intra-Sentence Clues

Grammatical-Constituent Dimension

A sentence contains a series of (overlapping) grammatical constituents, each of which affects to some extent the range of potential meaning of an unknown word. In listing those grammatical constituents that are most productive, we realize that a kind of grammatical analysis is involved, but we do not want students to get bogged down in a detailed, nitpicking grammatical analysis. The classification scheme should help students infer word meanings as quickly as possible, and not compel them to become meticulous, punctilious sentence-parsers. With this in mind, we have formulated a list of constituents divided into several groups depending on the hierarchical level at which they operate: sentence level, clause level, noun phrase level, and miscellaneous. These categories with illustrative sentences are presented in Table 5.

Table 2
Trans-Sentence Clues: The Rhetorical-Device Dimension

Clue Category	*Illustrative Sentences*
A. TRANSITION WORDS	
1. Same Word or Words Repeated	*Ossification* in the wrist for girls begins at eight months of age. In the wrist each of the many small bones hardens in turn, with the wrist hardening complete in several years. [The repetition of the word *wrist* enables the reader to isolate *hardening* as a synonym for *ossification*. The repetition of forms of *harden* also helps.] (Deighton, 8, p. 7)
2. Synonyms Repeated	He told me to toss him the football. The *pigskin*, however, was too slippery for me to throw. [*Toss* and *throw* are the synonyms. The first sentence talks about throwing a football, the second about throwing a pigskin. So the pigskin must be the football.]
3. Summary Words	Many American Indians grew *maize*. This variety of corn provided the bulk of their diet. [The summary phrase *this variety of corn* actually defines *maize*. The word *this* signals the presence of the defining synonym.]
4. Sentence Connectives	A second weakness of the League was that its sanctions were not *obligatory* upon the member states. Hence, each nation was still free to act or not, depending upon the extent of its political or economic interest. (Deighton, 8, p. 8)
B. PARALLEL STRUCTURES IN DIFFERENT SENTENCES	Dialogue gives sparkle and life, but it can be easily overdone. Do not employ it for *trivialities*. Do not use it for nonsense. [The parallel structures *do not employ it for* and *do not use it for* suggest that *trivialities* and *nonsense* are synonyms of each other.] (Deighton, 8, p. 8)
C. PUNCTUATION	He will certainly win; he has *trained* harder than anyone else.

Table 3
Trans-Sentence Clues: The Rhetorical-Relationship Dimension

Clue Category	*Illustrative Sentences*
1. RESTATEMENT B restates A in different words.	The author has kept the picture of the wild colt on a purely *behavioristic plane*. That is, she has described only its observable actions. (Deighton, 8, p. 8)
2. EXEMPLIFICATION* B is an example of A, or vice versa.	Her family members are all fine *instrumentalists*. Her brother, for instance, has played several violin solos with the Rochester Symphony.
3. SUPPORTING EVIDENCE* B is supporting evidence for A, or vice versa.	The U.S. tax system is *inequitable*. Some people with a $60,000 income pay $20,000 in taxes while others with the same income pay no taxes at all.
4. ADDITION A and B should be considered together. A and B share the same relationship to the topic sentence of the paragraph. B adds something along the same line of thought as A.	The bedsprings were old and sagging. And the *mattress* was yellowed. Blacks in the U.S. have poorer health than whites. Black males are more than twice as likely to die before 40 than whites. Moreover, the *infant mortality* rate for poor blacks is more than three times as high as for affluent whites.
5. ALTERNATION A and B are alternate possibilities.	On our vacation we could fly to Europe. Or we could *travel* to Mexico.
6. SIMILARITY A and B are similar.	Susan was very *weary*. Karen, too, was tired after the day's hard work.
7. CONTRAST A and B express contrasting ideas. Or sometimes, B is contrary to the expectation raised by A.	As a child, Barb was very quiet. Her brother, on the other hand, was quite *voluble*.
8. CAUSE-EFFECT A is the cause or reason for B, or vice versa.	This assignment demanded courage far above the measure of most men. Consequently, only the most *intrepid* were considered for the job. (Dulin, 9, p. 443)
9. SUMMARY B summarizes A.	He had fought in two wars, had led many soldiers, and had planned the capture of three cities. In short, he was a *seasoned* soldier.
10. CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER A occurred before B, or B before A, or A and B occurred at the same time.	We entered the restaurant and sat down at our table. Very soon the waiter brought us the *menus*.

Table 3 (continued)
Trans-Sentence Clues: The Rhetorical-Relationship Dimension

Clue Category	*Illustrative Sentences*
11. SPATIAL ORDER A and B are related in location.	The bedrooms are all on the second floor. The living room and kitchen are on the first floor. The playroom is in the *basement*.

*One way to provide supporting evidence is certainly to provide examples (Exemplification, Category 2). Hence, Category 2, Exemplification, and Category 3, Supporting Evidence, could very well be combined into a single category called Supporting Evidence. However, the category of Exemplification is listed separately from the category Supporting Evidence because the rhetorical relationship of Exemplification is so common and so productive that it merits a category all to itself. So Category 3, Supporting Evidence, refers to all *other* kinds of supporting evidence, such as reasons why an assertion is true, supporting statistical evidence, and so on.

Table 4
Rhetorical Relationships and Common Sentence Connectives

Rhetorical Relationship	*Sentence Connectives That Commonly Signal the Presence of Each Rhetorical Relationship*
Restatement	in other words, that is, that is to say, I mean
Exemplification	for example, for instance, to illustrate
Supporting Evidence	specifically, for one thing, first, second, finally
Addition	furthermore, in addition, besides, moreover, and, also
Alternation	or, alternately, alternatively, instead, or else
Similarity	similarly, likewise, equally, in the same way, in a like manner
Contrast	but, despite this, yet, however, still, nonetheless, nevertheless, instead, by contrast, in contrast, conversely, on the other hand
Cause-Effect	as a result, thus, consequently, therefore, because of this, so, hence, for, accordingly
Summary	to sum up, in sum, in summary, in conclusion, in short, in a word, to put it briefly, on the whole, all in all
Chronological Order	afterwards, then, subsequently, suddenly, later, now, first, second, third, after a short time, as soon as . . ., at length, immediately, at the same time, earlier, before, in the meantime
Spatial Order	on one side, on the other side, above, below, in the distance

Table 5
Intra-Sentence Clues: The Grammatical-Constituent Dimension

Clue Category	*Illustrative Sentences*
A. SENTENCE LEVEL	
1. Main Clauses	She felt really bored with him because his conversation was totally *vapid*. [The main clause gives a hint to the meaning of the word *vapid* in the subordinate clause.]
2. Subordinate Adverbial Clause	When Julie found out that she had won the music scholarship, she was *elated*. [The subordinate clause clarifies the meaning of the word *elated* in the main clause.]
B. CLAUSE LEVEL	
1. Subject Phrases	Large amounts of *zoarp* are mined in Idaho. [*Zoarp* must be something that can be mined, thus a mineral.] (Humes, 14, p. 333)
2. Verb Phrases	The young man's voice *fappered* constantly. [*Fappering* must be an action that a young man's voice can perform; it must refer to some sound.] (Humes, 14, p. 333)
3. Object Phrases	Ms. White *perused* the book carefully. [*Perusing* must be an action that a woman (subject-phrase clue) can do to a book (object-phrase clue) carefully (adverbial-of-manner clue).]
4. Adverbials of Place	We *moored* the boat to the dock. [*Mooring* must be something one does to a boat in connection to a dock, which is the place clue. Thus, *moored* probably means "tied."]
5. Adverbials of Manner	The bell *pealed* loudly. [Without the adverb *loudly*, *pealed* could mean "rang," "disappeared," "decayed," and so on. With the adverb, the potential meanings of *pealed* are constrained to some kind of sound, probably a ringing sound.]
6. Adverbials of Time	The overseas phone rates are *prohibitive* during the midday. [*Prohibitive* must have something to do with expensive phone rates, since readers know from experience that phone rates are highest during the daytime.]

Table 5 (continued)
Intra-Sentence Clues: The Grammatical-Constituent Dimension

Clue Category	*Illustrative Sentences*
C. NOUN-PHRASE LEVEL	
1. Noun	He turned to his favorite *passage* in the book. [A *passage* must be some part of a book.]
2. Noun Modifiers	And you will show the same insensitivity, as you lie back in a *cushioned* armchair. [*Cushioned* must refer to some quality that armchairs can have.]
D. MISCELLANEOUS	
1. Conjunctive Phrases	The wallpaper was so funny that I can only remember seeing yellow, *maroon*, and black. [*Maroon* must be a color.] (Humes, 14, p. 330)
2. Prepositions	To avoid the storm, the plane flew above the *thunderheads*. [The preposition *above* helps the reader guess that thunderheads are clouds.]

Sentence-Meaning Dimension

There is probably no limit to the number of categories that might be included in this dimension; a particular sentence might express many different meanings. It is therefore necessary to limit these categories to a relatively small, manageable number. Actually, any category in the Rhetorical-Relationship Dimension of Trans-Sentence Clues can also be a category in the Sentence-Meaning Dimension of Intra-Sentence Clues. For instance, consider the rhetorical relationship of cause-effect in these two sentences:

> Traffic was very congested last year.
> As a result, we left for the game an hour earlier this year.

This same cause-effect relationship can be expressed within a single sentence in various ways:

> Since traffic was very congested last year, we left for the game an hour earlier this year.

By similarly combining the two sentences in the illustrations in each category (Table 5), one can see that each of the 11 categories in the Rhetorical-Relationship Dimension is also a category in the Sentence-Meaning Dimension. In fact, it makes sense to limit the sentence-meaning categories to precisely these same productive 11 categories. Having the same list of semantic categories for both Trans-Sentence and Intra-Sentence clues makes the classification scheme much easier to remember than would having two different lists.

A careful study of the Intra-Sentence Clues will show that the semantic dimension is far less important than the structural dimension. The most helpful clues are almost always Grammatical-Constituent clues.

Assessment of the New Classification Scheme

Now that we have presented the new classification scheme, how does it fare under critical evaluation? We asked the following questions while evaluating other classification schemes, so it seems only fair to ask the same questions now.

1. *Is it complete?* The scheme should be relatively complete, having attempted to correct previous schemes' deficiencies in this regard. It tries to strike a balance between listing every conceivable clue and keeping the scheme relatively short and manageable.
2. *Is it productive?* The categories within the scheme should all be productive ones; some are more productive than others and thus should be the first ones taught to students.
3. *Is it consistent?* The scheme is much more consistent than previous schemes. It has attempted to resolve previous schemes' inconsistencies by separating the Trans-Sentence and Intra-Sentence clues into a structural dimension and a semantic dimension.
4. *Is it easy to learn?* The scheme should be, on the whole, easy to learn. If it seems rather long, at least the categories are grouped into sensible, meaningful patterns that should facilitate learning. More important, most ESL/EFL students will not have to learn anything new. Almost all the clue categories are identical to language categories that students have already learned in their basic reading and writing classes (although some writing classes may not have taught all 11 rhetorical relationships).

5. *Does it reinforce normal reading skills?* The classification scheme passes this criterion admirably. Readers should be using Overall-Context Clues at all times, whether or not they are inferring unknown word meanings, in order to build expectations by which the text can be interpreted. And of course, readers have to pay attention to grammatical constituents in normal reading; they obviously cannot comprehend a sentence without being aware of which elements are agents, verbs, objects of actions, modifiers, and so on.

We believe that the classification scheme developed here fares well under critical inspection. This does not imply that it is perfect, but it is unquestionably an improvement over previous schemes. The form presented here should be useful for native English speakers, learners of English, and—because the clues translate so easily—students of a foreign language (especially the most commonly taught Western languages). This system can help students increase their reading vocabulary and help them understand better what they read.

Notes

1. The 21 classification schemes reviewed are the following: Ames, 2; Artley, 3; Burns and Schell, 4; Bush and Huebner, 5; Dale and O'Rourke, 7; Deighton, 8; Dulin, 9; Durkin, 10; Harris, 11; Hook, 13; Humes, 14; Ives et al., 15; Johnson and Pearson, 16; Kruse, 17; McCullough, 19; McIntyre, 20; Seibert, 22; Spache and Berg, 23; Sternberg and Powell, 24; Thomas and Robinson, 25; Vacca, 27.

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10
Teaching Multi-Level Classes: A Lesson from the Past

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Multi-level classes continue to be a problem for foreign language teachers. With increased emphasis on an extended period of foreign language study, the number of multi-level classes may actually be increasing, especially in small schools or schools with low enrollment in one or more language offerings. Individualized instruction, a little-used model from the 1970s, deserves another look, especially with respect to its possible value as a tool in the multi-level classroom.

Individualized instruction as a topic for writers in foreign language education is clearly passé. A manual search of 300 articles published in five major foreign language education journals revealed only two titles that made reference to individualized instruction.[1] A search of the 1985 edition of *Books in Print* revealed no new titles of books from this decade devoted to individualized instruction, with the exception of the proceedings of the second and third national conferences on individualized instruction sponsored by the College of Humanities of The Ohio State University (Ervin, 4; Lacey, 5).

Although interest in the topic may have atrophied in the literature, one must not assume that the same situation exists in language classrooms. Individualized instruction is alive and well in at least one setting where it has allowed a multi-level foreign language program to thrive in spite of enormously limiting circumstances. This paper will briefly describe that program, suggest means for adapting it in other settings, and provide teachers at least one model for managing multi-level advanced classes.

Program Description

The University School is the laboratory school for the teacher education program of Southeast Missouri State University in Cape Girardeau. Six-year sequences in both French and Spanish are offered to a pool of fewer than 200 students from grades 7–12, with only one teacher. While beginning classes have consistently enjoyed more than satisfactory enrollments (especially compared to other elective subjects), a variety of factors has limited the enrollment in advanced courses. Having to choose from two language offerings divides the pool of talented, resourceful, and motivated students. Competition comes from core subjects required for graduation (e.g., two-credit requirements in both science and math), as well as from other equally attractive elective programs. A six-period day limits flexibility in the master schedule, a situation compounded by numerous one-section offerings in both core and elective subjects. In addition, juniors and seniors may opt to take college courses for either high school or college credit. These factors and others, some endemic to small schools and some peculiar to this lab school, have served to limit flexibility and to make scheduling an administrative nightmare (for further discussion, see Book, 1; 2; 3).

From an administrative perspective, the solution to these problems is deceptively simple. Students beyond first year, regardless of their age or the language being studied, are permitted to schedule "Advanced Foreign Language" during the hours in which this "dummy" course appears in the master schedule. An eighth grader in second-year French may, therefore, be continuing his or her studies along with a junior in third-year Spanish. In fact, one such class (affectionately known as a "zoo class") offered two levels of Spanish and four levels of French to nine students in one hour. The offering of such multi-level courses provides the kind of flexibility in scheduling essential to program success (for further details, see especially Book, 2).

Such multi-level classes would be impossible without an individualized instruction framework. Students progress on individual and small-group bases through planned programs of studies (individualized pacing) at a minimum proficiency of 80 percent (continuous progress). Each student is given a checklist for each new core lesson. This list contains the oral, reading, speaking, and writing exercises, as well as any workbook

activities, listening comprehension items, quizzes, and tests that the lesson may include. Tapes for oral practice, vocabulary cue cards, movies, filmstrips, and reference materials are available as needed to support and complement these activities. When a student's first attempt at a given item does not meet the minimum acceptable standard, remediation activities are available.

The concept of individualized pacing implies that students may progress through an appropriate level of study at their own optimum rates. In this multi-level program, student progress is clarified, delineated, and assured by two kinds of contracts that they negotiate.

Long-term contracts that detail students' obligations and subsequent "compensation" are negotiated each quarter. Contracts are sufficiently flexible to allow for true individualization of instruction. Students pursue individual interests and maximize given talents: students have contracted, for example, to read novels, write short stories, and compose notional/functional units for other students (e.g., how to obtain a driver's license). One student arranged to program some French lessons on a microcomputer. These contracts are renegotiable, up or down.

Short-term contracts are also negotiated on a daily/weekly basis. These contracts concern homework, speaking and reading exercises, quizzes, tests, and other such obligations. Students have considerable flexibility as they make these decisions, taking into account their other classes and commitments to extracurricular and non-school activities. All students are given Student Planners, which are teacher-made calendars for each quarter in its entirety, showing how many class days are available, which days are reserved for language-specific interaction sessions or for sessions with the entire group, and which days the instructor might be out of town or otherwise unavailable. The checklist for each core lesson serves as a planning aid for students and also facilitates record-keeping.

Outcomes

Several positive outcomes have emerged directly from this approach. Foremost among them is that students have the opportunity to continue their language studies in spite of low enrollments. The advanced levels of all students permit the use of target languages exclusively, both between students and teacher and among students. Students of one language often

watch, listen, and compare notes as students of the other language examine structures, participate in conversation activities, or discuss aspects of the target culture. These observations often provide opportunities for impromptu, albeit rudimentary, comparative sociolinguistics. Several students in advanced levels of one language have subsequently enrolled in the beginning level of the other language. Some of these have then enrolled the next year in both advanced French and advanced Spanish within the same class period. School administrators have appreciated the flexibility in master schedule construction, the reduction in number of schedule conflicts, and the increased likelihood of meeting students' requests for advanced language study.

The approach has been well received by both students and their parents. Students have commented positively about the fairness of the continuous progress grading system; the flexibility of the short-term contracts; the lively, unstructured, spontaneous atmosphere in the classroom; and the opportunities to progress toward linguistic competence at their own rates. Parents like long-term contracts that help them stay informed of the progress of their children.

Some Caveats

Some cautions are in order. The format is in no way presented here as a panacea. Foreign language educators who consider an individualized approach to multi-level classes should be aware of some limiting, if not negative, factors. First, an individualized approach is impossible without an expressed, overt commitment to the philosophy behind individualized pacing and instruction. Teachers must believe that the concept will work, or else it is futile to try. Second, classes organized on such a basis require much more energy and concentrated effort than teacher-centered situations. The continuous shifts from one language to another are hard work. At the same time, using target languages in this manner demonstrates that such shifting is possible and can be fun. Third, removing the teacher from the center of the day's activities requires a stronger grasp of the subject matter than in teacher-centered approaches, since the student questions are often spontaneous and impromptu, and explanations are harder to anticipate. Using the target languages so extensively requires considerable linguistic skill on the instructor's part, suggesting that an individualized

approach may not be advisable for inexperienced teachers. Fourth, the amount of paperwork is enormous. Correcting homework, writing exercises, quizzes, and tests is never ending, and record-keeping is a much more complicated procedure than in other approaches. In addition, preparing and duplicating checklists, calendars, multiple forms of quizzes and tests, as well as negotiating (and often renegotiating) long-term and short-term contracts are enormous consumers of time and energy.

A final caveat deserves attention from those attracted to such a multi-level program. One might label this consideration "ego problems." In individualized situations, the teacher no longer dominates the day's learning activities. Rather, he or she becomes a facilitator, advisor, diagnostician, and/or counselor. The teacher is no longer the primary motivator; the language is. The performance aspect of the teaching craft is gone. The teacher has fewer chances to present new material, to entertain, or to hold the attention of a group of students. The personal experience of this author is that the loss of opportunities to perform is one of the greater drawbacks of the individualized approach.

Conclusion

In spite of these limiting factors, experience has shown that such an individualized format offers a reasonable, workable alternative for multi-level advanced classes. Programs that, for whatever reasons, have struggled to achieve the "magic" enrollment numbers at advanced levels may wish to consider adapting the format presented here, one that provides opportunities for smaller groups of students to continue their language studies. Teachers who are uncomfortable with multi-level advanced classes within the same class period might adopt the contract system as an alternative to dividing their instructional time between or among the levels involved. Administrators might examine the feasibility of such multi-level scheduling in order to extend and expand curricular offerings in foreign languages.

Experience has shown that these multi-level programs need considerable management and attention. Students need the kind of structure provided from planning aids, but they also need occasional gentle reminders from their teachers about responsible use of the time available to them. Proper planning, however, can ensure a lively, spontaneous classroom

atmosphere in which the pleasure of acquiring additional language skills is evident. While there is a need for teachers to invest considerable time, energy, and skill in such a program, the rewards are tangible and real.

Notes

1. The five journals are: *Foreign Language Annals*, *Modern Language Journal*, *TESOL Quarterly*, *Hispania*, and *French Review*. The two articles are: Leon I. Twarog and E. Garrison Walters, "Mastery-based, Self-paced Instruction in Foreign Languages at Ohio State University: A Report to the Profession on a Four Year Experiment in Individualized Instruction in Six Foreign Languages," *Modern Language Journal* 65 (1981): 1–23; and Virginia Benmanan, Suzanne Moore, George Morgan, and Peter Rowe, "Individualized Spanish at an Undergraduate Institution: Implementation and Evaluation," *Modern Language Journal* 66 (1982): 150–154.

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11
Advanced Language Classes: Revitalizing the Curriculum

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Deciding what to teach in advanced secondary language classes always seems to be a problem. Students are tired of grammar-drill practice so prevalent during the first three years. In the advanced class, one finds varying degrees of oral proficiency, but at least one can now begin to use the term *fluency* with a clear conscience. In addition, much of what has been done in previous years is structured at lower levels of thinking (e.g., recall, comprehension). This last year provides many opportunities to stimulate synthesis (creativity) and evaluation in the target language (Bloom, 1).

Selecting the fourth-year curriculum is difficult: second language authorities give little guidance, and textbook choice is limited. The few texts available are disorganized; they cover many topics without a common underlying theme.

Student characteristics must be considered, especially at the advanced levels of language study. Though some students may go on to college to study a language course or two, most are in the fourth-year class in order to fulfill the college language requirement in advance. Seniors, therefore, exhibit little love of the subject matter and also show a certain lack of motivation, both probably brought on by three years of the same subject often taught by the same teacher. As a result, the teacher must work harder to stimulate interest and motivation.

Description of Curriculum

The curriculum described below was created to meet the needs of these fourth-year students. The human life cycle gives continuity to the series of lessons and serves as a cultural foundation. The first lesson identifies

Hispanic values. The second emphasizes the roles of men and women in Hispanic society. The third studies Hispanic customs dealing with dating, love, marriage, divorce. The fourth covers Hispanic treatment of death. Since these are common cultural themes, any language taught in secondary schools could follow a similar format.

Each lesson contains activities to increase oral proficiency. These activities center around class discussions of the readings and observations about life in the United States. Skeletal outlines are furnished before the articles are read, giving the students a basis for understanding what they read. Afterwards the outlines are used as a foundation for class discussion in Spanish.

The key activity that generates conversation among students is role-playing a realistic situation. Situations involving culture shock can be created by the teacher or students working individually or in groups. These situations usually take place in the target culture. Students explain why the culture shock has occurred, how they feel, and how the differences can be bridged. The roles can be reversed, students taking on the role of Hispanic visitors in the United States trying to cope with strange ways.

Whenever possible, native speakers are brought into the classroom and interviewed by the students to corroborate or refute information presented on the target culture. These interviews allow the students to see that they are not studying abstract entities, but real people who have feelings and beliefs just as they do. After the interviews, students are asked to react to what they heard, either orally or in writing.

Compositions are assigned after each lesson to emphasize written proficiency. In these compositions students summarize both the American and Hispanic cultural characteristics and then create a new and/or better society than already exists. This can be written as one extended composition or assigned in parts as each segment of the lesson is studied.

The example of creating a new society utilizes the two highest levels of thinking: synthesis and evaluation. *Synthesis* takes the information that is learned and asks that something new be created from it. *Evaluation* asks that intelligent judgments be made based on the information gathered. Students sometimes find these levels of thinking difficult, but that is exactly why they should be included in the curriculum. Much of what is presented in texts never asks for a level higher than application. When ample opportunities are provided, however, students can begin to exercise their thinking skills, and each time the task becomes a little easier.

Lesson 1: Values

Before any cultural generalizations are presented to the class, the meanings of the words *culture* and *stereotype* are discussed. An article on culture from *The Nacirema* (8), a satiric anthropological description of American culture, is read and discussed. The concept of stereotyping is also analyzed.

Before studying Hispanic values, students identify their own values. An exercise used to identify values is entitled, "Twenty Things You Love to Do" (Simon, et al., 7). The students are asked to list 20 things they love to do and then code their choices (for example, do they cost more than $5, or are they done alone or with people?). This exercise gives students the opportunity to analyze the values that determine their daily use of leisure time.

Students are also asked to list ten things that anger them, and then search for the underlying value that is violated causing their anger (Moskowitz, 6). After completing the exercises, students have a clearer picture of what is important to them.

Students are now ready to analyze Hispanic values. They read three articles, "Individualismo Hispánico" and "Otras Características" (Díaz, 3) and "La Familia en el Mundo Hispánico" (Copeland et al., 2). Students next write a composition, first describing themselves according to these values exercises, then describing Hispanic values according to the articles read, and finally evaluating both sets of values by choosing what they like best from both cultures to create a perfect society.

In order to increase oral proficiency, students role-play a realistic situation. They imagine themselves, for example, going to a Mexican friend's home for a party. They see people of all ages dancing and singing until three o'clock in the morning. Questions arise as the visitors observe these differences. The Mexican friend has to answer them. Students can simultaneously role-play the situation in small groups, or can perform in pairs in front of the class.

Lesson 2: The Sex Roles

To begin the lesson on the role of men and women in society, students divide into small groups and draw their concept of the typical male and female. As an alternative they can cut pictures out of magazines. Stories

are created in class to describe the typical day of these caricatures and their relationship to each other. The teacher must help students distinguish between any stereotypes resulting from this activity and the reality of their own experiences.

After the stereotypical sex roles in the United States have been identified, students are ready to study Hispanic roles. Students read articles and Spanish literary works on the concepts of *machismo* and *marianismo* (women like the Virgin Mary) (Diaz, 3). Hispanic magazines and newspapers are used to find pictures in ads of the typical male and female. Students must write two original ads for the same product: one that would appeal to the different sexes in the Hispanic culture; another to males/females in the United States. Comparisons are made between the two cultures. There is special emphasis on the decreasing evidence of true machismo in the Hispanic countries. Though the "macho" male exists in almost every culture, the role is not as prominent as it once was.

An enlightening experience for students is to roleplay reversed sex roles. It is a "typical" afternoon at home, the exhausted father arriving home from work, the mother tired from working with the children all day. Conflict arises as each expects comfort from the other. The students must resolve this conflict as they roleplay so that each person comes out a winner.

Lesson 3: Dating, Love, Marriage, Divorce

As preceding lessons illustrate, students must identify their own customs first. How do they describe dating in the United States? The students write culture capsules using their own ideas about dating. These capsules are compared and analyzed with others in the class. Finally, a single capsule that best describes dating in the United States is synthesized from the various ideas of individual class members.

Because dating is so important in students' lives, many exercises in resolving problems can be used. Each student writes on a card a dating problem that he or she has heard of or has had. These problems can then be answered by individuals or by groups in the format of advice column letters. Problems and solutions are posted on the bulletin board so that everyone can read them.

To learn about Hispanic dating customs, culture capsules are used

(Miller, 5). Though the literature may not be current, the students understand these traditional customs. An excellent way to compare cultural differences in dating is to have students explain American dating customs to a newly arrived exchange student. Because the exchange student does not speak English very well yet, students must use drawings to assist in conveying information. The scene then changes to Mexico, where someone must explain Mexican dating customs to the American students.

Love is the next step in the life cycle. Instead of an emphasis on differences, students focus on the concept of love. In groups, students draw their perceptions of love on large pieces of paper. Groups must agree on a drawing that best describes love and must explain to the class in Spanish why they chose their particular representation. *Paso a Paso* (Hampares et al., 4) has a very effective unit on love that is read at this time.

Popular Spanish love songs are used to analyze love. Students receive the lyrics of a song with some words omitted. As the record plays, the students must fill in the words. Then the song is translated and analyzed for love themes. Besides love songs, there are many other sources in both the American and Hispanic cultures where love themes are prevalent. Literary works, television shows, advice columns, ads, and articles from newspapers and magazines—all can provide material for this unit. Orally or in writing, students create their own songs, poems, stories, ads, soap operas, newspaper or magazine articles with love as a theme.

The love theme lends itself to many kinds of realistic situations. One student can pretend that his or her sweetheart has just decided that they are getting too serious and that they need to date other people, although they will still continue seeing each other. The devastated student calls a close friend for advice. After listening, the student confronts the sweetheart with a new plan. Students empathize with this situation and can gain some insight into love problems in their own lives.

Hispanic and American engagement and wedding customs differ, and these differences are interesting to the students. Engagement and marriage announcements in Hispanic newspapers illustrate some of these differences. If possible, the teacher can invite a Hispanic couple to show wedding pictures and describe their wedding ceremony, or they can contrast their experience with what they have observed in the United States. Using this information, students plan their own imaginary engagements and wedding ceremonies, the only stipulation being that they are

now in Mexico. They prepare announcements, plan the dinners, and perform mock services in front of the class.

Roleplaying and problem-solving are also useful techniques in dealing with the concept of divorce. The students divide into groups: one playing the judge, the others the troubled family. The opposing sides present their points of view. The judge takes notes, asks questions, and then determines the solution and reconciliation of the family.

Lesson 4: Death

Students read an excellent unit on death covering many aspects of the concept (Hampares et al., 4). Students who want to do so can share with the class or with the teacher their experiences concerning the loss of loved ones. After this activity, the teacher presents the stages of death and grieving. If desired, students can research and describe procedures and costs in making funeral arrangements.

Students read Somerville's thorough presentation on Spanish customs relating to death (9). The packet, which is in individualized study format, covers the funeral announcement, the funeral itself, and burial customs. Next, students design their own funerals and write their own epitaphs and obituaries, incorporating customs from both cultures. If they desire, they can prepare eulogies honoring their own lives or lives of their family and friends. Students can be funny, creative, or serious in their speeches.

Conclusion

The preceding description is only a sampling of possible activities. Over the years of development, many aspects of the curriculum have been added and deleted, with many variations incorporated. Still, the central themes of the life cycle have remained intact. It is hoped that reading this description can provide a trigger for many fresh ideas to be added to the reader's advanced language classroom. Not every activity is successful for every teacher, but each may provide an inspiration for increasing student creativity and oral and written self-expression. The life cycle themes help clarify students' own values and also promote a better understanding of the values of another culture.

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12
Strengthening Community Foreign Language Programs through Communication Bridges

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Both the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies (4) and the National Commission on Excellence in Education (2) noted the importance of improved and expanded foreign language programs in this country. These reports recognize that foreign language teaching should begin in grade school to allow students the years of study necessary for developing proficiency in a language.

The Iowa Governor's Task Force Report echoes the findings of the national reports, stating as its first recommendation the promotion of a comprehensive foreign language and international studies program. The report suggests that "the program should extend from kindergarten through college and beyond, in a coordinated effort to reach all Iowans" (1, p. 19). Yet in Iowa, local school districts are unable to fund programs in the elementary schools. It is parents committed to providing this opportunity for their children who organize extracurricular foreign language programs for elementary school children. In central Iowa during the 1983–84 school year, three communities initiated new extracurricular FLES (foreign language in the elementary school) programs and seven other communities were studying the possibility of establishing such a program (Rosenbusch, 3). Interest in FLES appears to be high throughout Iowa, judging from the numerous requests (almost 400) for the newly established Iowa FLES Newsletter.

These grassroots FLES programs can offer valuable experiences for

Iowa's children. Their most important contributions are developing positive attitudes toward other languages and cultures and demonstrating to children that they can learn to speak a foreign language. The potential value of these programs can best be understood by reviewing the typical attitude many Iowans express toward foreign language education. The Iowa Governor's Task Force Report describes Iowans as accepting of what they believe to be the "practicalities of life": "No one ever uses a 'foreign' language." "Learning a foreign language is a waste of time and money." "Travel is expensive and difficult, given our location" (1, p. 11).

In spite of positive contributions to foreign language learning that extracurricular FLES programs make, the programs are vulnerable. Their strength lies in the dedication of organizers, most often the parents of children within the program. As years pass and their sons and daughters enter junior high school, these dedicated parent volunteers move on to support their children's new activities. Every few years, therefore, the program is in jeopardy until new parent volunteers are found. Typically, there is no base of aggressive support for the FLES programs, either in a community or beyond it, other than parents.

Schools cooperate with the FLES programs by offering meeting space but usually do not become further involved. Although it might seem logical for curricular foreign language teachers to be supportive of FLES programs, this frequently does not happen. In communities where FLES programs are being established, junior and senior high school language teachers feel threatened. They fear that if children were to have a negative experience with a foreign language in elementary school, they would be unlikely to continue in junior and senior high school, thus weakening the curricular program. Having a FLES program in a community can justify a reduction in some of the curricular foreign language courses, for example, the exploratory course.

For reasons such as these, teachers involved in curricular foreign language programs and those involved in extracurricular programs have not been working together to strengthen foreign language education. Instead, a pattern of noncooperation and noncommunication has been emerging in these communities. The lack of a state Foreign Language Consultant in the Department of Public Instruction prior to spring 1985, someone who might have actively encouraged articulation between programs within a community, has complicated the situation.

It is unsettling to realize that the enthusiasm of this grassroots effort might be short-lived and that Iowa's elementary school children in the future might not have the opportunity to discover the world beyond Iowa during their optimum years for learning about other cultures and languages. It seems imperative, therefore, to explore ways in which foreign language education can be strengthened, not only in extracurricular FLES programs, but also at all levels within a community.

Goals and Objectives

To provide a more permanent foundation for foreign language education in general and for extracurricular FLES programs in particular, a project was funded by the Iowa Humanities Board in conjunction with the National Endowment for the Humanities. The goals of this project were as follows:

1. To ensure positive experiences in foreign language learning for students from elementary school through high school.
2. To sensitize foreign language teachers at all levels of instruction to the need for cooperation among them.

The following objectives were developed to meet these goals:

1. To establish a working communication bridge between curricular and extracurricular foreign language programs within a community.
2. To work for mutual understanding and support of foreign language program goals for the various levels of teaching within a community.
3. To develop cooperative efforts in both classroom and special program activities among the various levels of teaching.

Implementation of the Project

The program was implemented in an Iowa community with an established curricular program in French and Spanish at both junior and senior high school. The curricular program, taken by all students in seventh grade, consisted of a half-semester exploratory course in which both lan-

guages were introduced, followed by an elective five-year sequence in each language. An extracurricular program was also available to all elementary school children on a tuition basis. Spanish, French, and German were taught in this community-wide extracurricular program. Permission to carry out the humanities project with these programs was granted by both school administrators and the chairperson of the extracurricular program.

The project began in October with a half-day workshop for seven junior and senior high school foreign language teachers and twelve FLES tutors and parent coordinators. School administrators allowed curricular teachers to substitute this workshop for the regularly planned inservice day. The workshop included the following activities:

1. Viewing a videotape of a model FLES class.
2. Discussion of program goals and objectives discernible in the videotape compared with those of the local FLES program.
3. Comparison of goals and objectives of the FLES program, the seventh grade exploratory course, and the junior and senior high language sequence.
4. Definition of similarities and differences in goals and objectives among the three program types and an exploration of the reasons for areas of similarity and difference.
5. Brainstorming ideas for ways in which FLES and curricular programs could cooperate and mutually enhance their shared goals and objectives.
6. Establishment of a communications system between the curricular and extracurricular programs and a plan for continued communication/cooperation.

The videotape was viewed by the total group and served as a focal point to initiate discussion in small groups. Each group—with representatives from the junior and senior high language sequence courses, the junior high exploratory course, and FLES—was given worksheets to record the objectives and methodology of each of the three types of programs. As this was the first time communication among program levels had occurred, an hour was provided for this discussion to allow an in-depth sharing of ideas.

Findings of each small group were shared with the total group and recorded on the blackboard as "similarities" and "differences" among the

three program levels. Examples of similarities found in all three types of programs are an emphasis on oral communication, the teaching of culture, the teaching of grammar (inductively at some levels), the development of a positive attitude toward learning a foreign language, and the use of visuals. Program organization and administration was found to be dissimilar: FLES has smaller classes with fewer meeting times per week, a flexible curriculum, and high parent involvement in the program. Methodology was another dissimilarity: FLES uses games regularly while games are a reward in the other levels, FLES is all oral having no written work as do the other two levels, FLES has a higher proportion of student-to-student communication, and FLES changes activities more frequently during a class period than do the other program levels.

Brainstorming by the total group resulted in ideas for ways in which FLES and the curricular programs could work together in the future. Teachers and/or students of the various levels could visit the classes of a different level, and teaching materials could be loaned among the various levels. Foreign Language Week could be celebrated with shared activities such as a food fair for the community, and newspaper articles could be prepared about the total foreign language program in the community. Finally, administrators could be kept well informed of the developing cooperation.

Coordinating Group

A coordinating group of three curricular teachers (chosen by the curricular staff) and four FLES representatives (selected by the FLES program chairperson) was formed in order to develop and put into action a plan of cooperation among the program levels. This coordinating group was to meet again within two weeks. Project directors informed the administration of the results of this first meeting by letter, a practice they continued after each subsequent meeting.

By the time the coordinating group met in early November, several visits were made by the FLES teachers to curricular classes for observation or sharing. As a first step in making a smooth transition between the FLES and exploratory programs, it was decided that FLES teachers would provide exploratory course teachers with the names of FLES students entering the exploratory program and a list of the vocabulary they had studied.

The group decided to write a newspaper article together informing the community about the curricular and extracurricular programs. The article was later published in the local newspaper.

The coordinating group met again in January and discussed how Foreign Language Week might be celebrated together. The group also suggested that two inservice days of the curricular teachers be set aside in the next school year for continued communication among programs. The project directors conveyed this request to the school administrators.

In a February meeting, plans for the joint celebration of Foreign Language Week were completed. Fifth- and sixth-grade FLES students would visit the exploratory classes and present some of their achievements to the upper level classes, and the older students would also share what they had learned with the younger ones. As these visits were to occur during school time, permission was requested from the administration. In order to inform the community about the celebration of Foreign Language Week, plans were made to photograph these visits and to write another article for the local newspaper.

Because the administration did not approve the requests for classroom visits during school time, the original plan for the celebration of Foreign Language Week was altered. Elementary principals were invited to visit FLES classes, and several of them did so. Differences in schedules permitted some groups of FLES and curricular students to exchange visits and share conversations, songs, and activities outside of school time; and an article and photographs of the exchanges appeared in the local paper. Except for the final evaluation, the events of Foreign Language Week concluded the project activities.

Evaluation of Project

The project was evaluated in two ways: through a written evaluation form and in an evaluation session held with the coordinating group. All who participated in the first workshop received a letter asking for their cooperation in evaluating the project, a list of the goals and accomplishments of the project, and an evaluation form. Thirteen of the nineteen evaluation forms were completed and returned, a 68 percent return rate.

Results of the evaluation forms were summarized and shared with the coordinating group in their evaluation session. Responses to items on the

evaluation form were positive, indicating that respondents felt that the goals of the project had been accomplished: 30 percent of the responses were marked "Strongly agree"; 60 percent were marked "Agree"; and 9 percent were "No opinion." Only one response was marked "Disagree" and no responses were marked "Strongly disagree."

All but three participants wrote comments on the evaluation form as requested, providing insight into their thinking. A number of comments indicated that communication links had indeed been established among the teachers. Many of them indicated that had it not been for the project, they would not have met nor worked together with teachers from other programs. One respondent noted that "the project helped eliminate an invisible wall between the programs," and that "teachers feel more comfortable about each program and feel more free to contact each other." Another wrote that they "gained a respect for each other's programs" as they learned more about them. Participants cited the classroom visits and the newspaper articles as positive outcomes.

Although the project did establish communication bridges and was viewed as successful in accomplishing its goals, five participants expressed concern about further work to establish a positive relationship between the curricular and extracurricular programs. Problem areas included:

1. The need for more cooperation with school administration.
2. The existence of personal misunderstandings between teachers at the FLES and secondary levels.
3. The importance of coordination and articulation between curricular and extracurricular programs.
4. The recognition and fear of the changes that the FLES program will mandate in the secondary curriculum.

One participant suggested that articulation should be the goal of future projects in order to "increase the seriousness, the importance, and the valuable outcomes for all concerned."

After reviewing the responses to the written evaluation, members of the coordinating group were asked to write goals for the community's total foreign language program for the next five years. The larger group then divided into two smaller groups, each having representatives from the extracurricular FLES and the curricular program. The preliminary goal statements were then divided randomly between the two groups. The

groups reviewed the statements, discussed them, and, based on these materials, developed a goal statement on which they could all agree. The total group then reconvened to examine the similarities and differences in their statements and to define a shared goal statement.

The final goal statement that was shared with the administration and with all project participants follows (not necessarily in order of importance):

1. Develop community awareness of the necessity of a long-term commitment in learning a foreign language.
2. Demonstrate to the community, administrators, and school board the importance of foreign language study.
3. Work to create the position of Foreign Language Coordinator to coordinate and articulate the community's extracurricular and curricular foreign language programs.
4. Continue the meetings of teachers of all levels to help establish articulation among the various levels of foreign language teaching.
5. Study similar foreign language programs throughout the U.S. to learn from their experiences.
6. Continue to share special activities among the various levels, especially during Foreign Language Week.
7. Work to establish a summer foreign language program based on the concepts of immersion and/or a global perspective.

Based on the positive evaluation of the project, the directors are convinced that the groundwork has been laid for further communication and cooperation since teachers are now acquainted with one another, are more familiar with the programs, and have cooperated in successful joint ventures. The directors believe, however, that several changes should be made in carrying out this project in other communities.

Recommendations for Future Projects

A major change recommended for future projects would be the involvement of the school administration, as well as the administrators of the FLES program. The project would be carried out at the request of the school administration rather than at the request of the project directors. In this pilot project, the directors asked for and were granted permission

to carry out the project with their teachers; school administrators cooperated by allowing one inservice day for the first meeting. Administrators were informed of the accomplishments of the project through telephone communications and letters, but no administrative representative observed or participated directly. To increase teacher commitment to the project, the teachers need to know that cooperation between the extracurricular and curricular programs is also a goal to which the administration is committed. The pilot project was designed with only one large group meeting at the beginning to eliminate the need for more than one inservice day for the curricular teachers. Because teachers who were negative toward the other type of program (curricular or extracurricular) did not have sufficient opportunities for developing in-depth understanding and appreciation for another point of view, the directors recommend more large group contacts through the school year. Although curricular members of the coordinating group were chosen by their peers, and FLES representatives were selected by the FLES chairperson, coordinating group members tended to be those who were already interested in cooperation between the programs and already open to establishing working relationships.

The role of the project directors was not to impose their own concerns upon the group but rather to establish the means for communication so that group members might define the issues for themselves. In the pilot study, the group did not initially identify articulation as a point of concern, yet in the final evaluation, four individuals cited articulation as an important issue. The coordinating group also defined articulation as an important goal in their final meeting. Perhaps more than anything else, this indicates the importance of continuing the communication established through the project.

The directors believe that it is important that such projects be directed by cofacilitators experienced with one of the types of program—junior and senior high curricular and FLES extracurricular. It is also important that project directors not be from the community nor represent the administration. In this way representatives know that their concerns will be accepted and understood and that they can participate in the dialogue openly instead of defensively. The two facilitators serve as models of cooperation as together they provide this experience for the community.

Conclusion

The directors and participants made the project goals a reality. Foreign language students had positive experiences through visits to classes at other levels and through Foreign Language Week activities. Foreign language teachers at all levels of instruction met one another and, through exchange of ideas, came to understand one another better. The communication bridge established through the project is serving to strengthen the community's foreign language program.

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